DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 439 312 CG 029 879

AUTHOR	Evraiff, Bill, Comp.; Evraiff, Lois, Comp.
TITLE	Caring in an Age of Technology. Proceedings of the International Conference on Counseling in the 21st Century (6th, Beijing, China, May 29-30, 1997).
PUB DATE	1997-05-00
NOTE	321p.; For individual papers, see CG 029 880-931.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Proceedings (021)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC13 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	College Students; Computers; Counseling; *Cross Cultural Studies; Elementary Secondary Education; *Family Counseling; Foreign Countries; Foreign Culture; Higher Education; Internet; *Social Change; Technology

ABSTRACT

The two main themes of this conference were the influence of technology on families, and technology and counseling. Many of the papers consider the impact technology is having on individuals and families, and subsequently how it is affecting the counseling profession. This involves new ways of counseling using technological resources, and counseling techniques for concerns brought about by technology. Other topics covered include insights from mother-daughter groups, behavior counseling for parents with special children, human rights education, and career counseling. All presentations are included. The 52 papers include: (1) "The Homeroom Teacher's Role in Psychological Counseling at School" (W. Guodong); (2) "A Study of Family Therapy for Student Counseling" (O. Honda); and (3) "Technology and the School Counselor" (D. Coy and C. Minor). (JDM)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made
from the original document.

ED 439 312

SIXTH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE

COUNSELING IN THE 21ST CENTURY

MAY 29-30 , 1997, BEIJING

CG029879

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☐ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

● Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
W. EVRAIFF

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

SIXTH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE

MAY 1997

BEIJING

COUNSELING IN THE 21ST CENTURY

"Caring In An Age Of Technology"

SPONSORS

CHINA	*Beijing Normal University (Host)*
CANADA	*University of Victoria*
HONG KONG	*The City University of Hong Kong*
JAPAN	*Osaka City University*
SINGAPORE	*National Institute of Education*
TAIWAN	*National Kaohsiung Normal University*
UNITED STATES	*Northern California Graduate University*
	San Francisco State University

PROFESSIONAL AFFILIATE SPONSORS

C.A.C.D.	*California Association for Counseling and Development*
CHI SIGMA IOTA	*Counseling Academic and Professional Honor Society*
I.A.M.F.C.	*International Association for Marriage and Family Counseling*

SPONSOR COMMITTEE

Dr. Bill EVRAIFF, Northern California Graduate University
Dr. Honore FRANCE, University of Victoria
Dr. Yoshiya KURATO, Osaka City University
Dr. Gongbin WANG, Beijing Normal University
Dr. Julia YANG, National Kaohsiung Normal University

CONFERENCE ORGANIZERS

Dr. Bill EVRAIFF, Northern California Graduate University
Dr. Lois EVRAIFF, Northern California Graduate University

CONFERENCE FACILITY

Great Wall Sheraton Hotel, Beijing

COORDINATING COMMITTEE FROM BEIJING NORMAL UNIVERSITY

Gongbin WANG
Zheng RICHAUD
Hu PEICHENG
Wang DENGFENG

TRAVEL ARRANGEMENTS

Dr. Phillip HWANG, Universal Travel, San Diego, CA

COMPUTER ARRANGEMENTS AND TYPESETTING

David EVRAIFF, DCG Supply, Diamond Springs, CA
Michael KELLY, Northern California Graduate University

LIST OF CONTRIBUTORS TO SCHOLARSHIP FUND FOR CONFERENCE ATTENDEES FROM CHINA

Marge Artero-Boname
Joan Blanusa
Sal Chavez
Bill and Lois Evraiff
Louis Falik
Gerald Gandy
Tom and Joan Harrington
Ed Hascall
Don Hays
Ron Hood and Geri Miller
Xiaolu Hu
Yoshiya and Yukiko Kurato
Joseph and Ruth Lippincott
Don and Ginger MacDonald
Wei-Cheng Mau
Mark Pope
John Roseman
Winifred Strong
Julia Yang
and the
Graduate institute of counseling/Guidance National Kaohsiung Normal University

CONTENTS

HOW TECHNOLOGY IS INFLUENCING FAMILIES IN JAPAN 1
Yoshiya KURATO, Ph.D.

A VISION OF AN INTELLIGENT ISLAND 7
Cecilia SOONG

TECHNOLOGY AND CULTURAL CHANGE: IMPLICATIONS IN COUNSELING TAIWAN CHINESE FAMILIES 15
Julia YANG, Ph.D.

IMPACTS OF CREDIT CARDS ON INDIVIDUALS, FAMILIES AND SOCIETY IN HONG KONG: AN EXPLORATION 23
Alfred CHAN, Ph.D.

THE INFLUENCE OF TECHNOLOGY ON FAMILIES 31
Jon CARLSON, Ed.D, PSY. D.

CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND COUNSELING STRATEGIES IN AN AGE OF TECHNOLOGY 37
Xiaolu HU, Ph.D. and Sarah TOMAN, Ph.D.

COMPUTER BASED CAREER INTERVENTION 43
Wei-Cheng MAU, Ph.D.

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON THE IMPORTANCE OF THE THERAPEUTIC ALLIANCE AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR THE USE OF TECHNOLOGY 51
Peggy SMITH, Ph.D.

THE NATURE OF SELF-INTEGRATED AUTHENTICITY IN COUNSELORS AND THERAPISTS 57
Laura HEID, Ph.D. and Mary PARISH, Ed.D.

ENHANCING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE COUNSELOR THROUGH THE APPLICATION OF MEDIATED LEARNING EXPERIENCE 63
Louis FALIK, Ph.D.

MAINTAINING COMPASSION IN AN ERA OF HEALTH CARE MANAGEMENT TECHNOLOGY 69
Ron HOOD, Ph.D. and Geri MILLER, Ph.D.

MUSIC PERFORMANCE ANXIETY: AN OVERVIEW OF TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCES IN THERAPY, PSYCHOPHARMACOLOGY & BIO-FEEDBACK 75
John HIPPLE, Ph.D.

PASTORAL CARE IN ASSUMPTION COLLEGE: ITS CONCEPT AND PRACTICE **81**
Conchita UMALI, Ed.D.

THE HOMEROOM TEACHER'S ROLE IN PSYCHOLOGICAL COUNSELING AT SCHOOL 87
Wang GUODONG

VIDEO GAMES: A POTENTIAL NEW WORLD 93
Yuriko MATSUSHITA and Koji MATSUSHITA

CAREER COUNSELING FOR NEW CHINESE IMMIGRANTS: CLINICAL ISSUES AND PRACTICAL RECOMMENDATIONS 99
Robert CHOPE, Ph.D. and Fan FANG, M.S.

SEPARATION-INDIVIDUATION PROCESS OF TAIWAN HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS AND ITS IMPLICATION IN COUNSELING 107
Yung-Jong SHIAH, Wai-Cheong Carl TAM, Ph.D. and Shih-Kuang CHIANG

RISE TO THE CHALLENGE OF SCIENCE TO FAMILY 115
Deng WEIZHI

DISABILITY AND RATIONAL EMOTIVE BEHAVIOR THERAPY (REBT) 119
Gerald GANDY, Ph.D.

A STUDY OF FAMILY THERAPY FOR STUDENT COUNSELING 125
Osamu HONDA

OPERATIONALIZING THE ABILITY CHUNK OF SUPER'S VOCATIONAL THEORY 129
Thomas HARRINGTON, Ph.D.

HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF CAREER COUNSELING IN THE USA 133
Mark POPE, Ed.D.

HISTORICAL EVOLUTION OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT IN CHINA AND HONG KONG 139
Zang WEIYUAN, Ph.D.

A STUDY ON LEARNING STRATEGIES AND THE EFFECT OF GROUP CONSELING FOR LEARNING OF SENIOR HIGH STUDENTS 145
Ming-Chao CHEN and Kong-Jieng TSENG

CROSS CULTURAL CARING: GLOBAL SOLUTIONS FOR EMPOWERING FEMALES 151
Cheryl BARTHOLOMEW, Ph.D. and Jeanne COSTELLO, M.S., M.A.

UNDERSTANDING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEARNING STYLE AND MULTICULTURALISM FOR SCHOOL COUNSELORS 157
Audrey HURLEY, Ed.D.

INTIMACY AND TECHNOLOGY 163
Donald HAYS, Ph.D.

CONCERNS FOR COUNSELORS IN THE AGE OF TECHNOLOGICAL DANGERS 169
Marilyn BOHAN, Ph.D.

GENETICS AND PSYCHOLOGY AT A CROSSROAD: A ROAD LESS TRAVELED? 175
Vivian WANG, Ph.D.

REENTRY DIFFICULTY, LIFE SATISFACTION AND PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING OF TAIWANESE STUDENTS WHO HAVE RETURNED FROM THE UNITED STATES 181
Hui-Chuan PAI, Ph.D.

STUDENT SUCCESS: SERVING INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS IN AN AGE OF TECHNOLOGY. 187
Nancy SCOTT, Ed.D.

RELATIONSHIP TECHNOLOGY AND CARING: COMPARATIVE/CROSS-CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE ON COUNSELING AT-RISK YOUTH 193
Lonnie ROWELL, Ph.D.

ISSUES IN MULTI-CULTURAL COUNSELING SUPERVISION 199
Ginger MACDONALD, Ph.D.

TREATING STRESS ACROSS CULTURES: A SOMATIC-COGNITIVE MODEL 205
Joseph LIPPENCOTT, Ph.D.

THE CHALLENGE OF GRIEF: COUNSELING THE SURVIVORS 211
Winifred STRONG, M.A. and Mary HONER, Ed.D.

HELP-SEEKING BEHAVIOR OF THE COLLEGE STUDENTS IN TAIWAN 217
Hsiu-Lan Shelly TIEN, Ph.D.

WORLDVIEW AND COUNSELING: PERCEPTIONS OF SINGAPOREAN STUDENTS 223
Cecilia SOONG

INTEGRATION OF THE RESOURCES OF THE GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING VIA INTERNET: DEVELOPMENT OF THE "GUIDANCE NETWORK SYSTEM (GNS)" IN TAIWAN 229
Hawjeng CHIOU, Ph.D.

TECHNOLOGY AND THE SCHOOL COUNSELOR 237
Doris COY, Ph.D. and Carole MINOR, Ph.D.

A CLINICAL APPLICATION OF PHYSICAL PARTITION 243
Koji MATSUSHITA and Yuriko MATSUSHITA

KEEP MENTAL HEALTH BY ART RECREATION **249**
Gongbin Wang

PRELIMINARY EXPLORATION OF SELF-ESTEEM CONSTRUCT: A FACE VALIDITY STUDY OF THE INDEX OF SELF-ESTEEM WITH A CHAMORU UNIVERSITY STUDENT SAMPLE 257
Margaret ARTERO-BONAME, Ph.D.

THE EVOLUTION OF INDIVIDUALISM IN THE WESTERN HEMISPHERE AND ITS IMPLICATION FOR AN EAST-WEST DIALOGUE 263
Don MACDONALD, Ph.D.

THE COUNTERMEASURES TO THE PSYCHOLOGICAL PRESSURE OF CHILDREN IN THE TECHNOLOGICAL AGE: HOW TO RAISE THE LEVEL OF PSYCHOLOGICAL SOUNDNESS IN THE FAMILY 269
CAO Zifang and Wang Yi

FINDING COMMON GROUND BETWEEN ADOLESCENT GIRLS AND THEIR MOTHERS: INSIGHT FROM A MOTHER-DAUGHTER GROUP 273
Matthew CARLSON

SCHOOL COUNSELORS, TEACHERS AND PARENTS: USING PLAY TECHNIQUES TO SUPPORT CHILDREN'S DEVELOPMENT 279
Dorothy BREEN, Ph.D.

SELF-ESTEEM OR SELF-DELUSION? 285
Philip HAWING, Ph.D.

BEHAVIOR COUNSELING PARENTS OF SPECIAL CHILDREN 291
Qing JIAO, M. Ed.

A STUDY ON AN IMAGE OT THE "IBAYSO" OR PSYCHOLOGICAL COMFORTABLE SPACE FOR THE CHILDREN OF NON-ATTENDANT AT SCHOOL THOUGH THE ●▲■ TECHNIQUE 295
Yasuko NAKAMURA

EDUCATION AND COUNSELING ON ADOLESCENT LIFE 301
Peicheng HU, M.D. and Allan WU

HUMAN DIGNITY, DECENCY AND INTEGRITY AS THE SINE QUA NON OF HUMAN RIGHT EDUCATION: A PROACTIVE CONCEPTUAL AND PRACTICAL FRAMEWORK FOR PROMOTION OF WORLD PEACE 309
Daya Singh SANDHU, Ed.D.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF COUNSELING AND THERAPY IN CHINA 313
ZHENG Richang, ZHANG Shanshang, ZHANG Wen, TAN Li

PARTICIPANTS 321

WEDNESDAY MAY 28

6:00 - 8:00 **REGISTRATION**

THURSDAY MAY 29

7:30 - 8:00 **REGISTRATION**

8:00 - 8:45 **WELCOME**

Ballroom 1
Bill EVRAIFF
Representatives from Sponsoring Universities
Dr. Wang YINHJIE: Vice-President of Beijing Normal University

8:45 - 10:15 **SYMPOSIUM I - *Influence of Technology on Families***

Ballroom 1
PROGRAM 1 - ***Moderator:*** Nancy SCOTT
Presenters:
Yoshiya KURATO: "How Technology Is Influencing Families in Japan"
Cecilia SOONG: "A Vision of an Intelligent Island"
Julia YANG: "Technology and Cultural Change: Implications in Counseling Taiwan Chinese Families"
Alfred CHAN: "Impacts of Credit Cards on Individuals, Families and Society in Hong Kong: An Exploration"
Jon CARLSON: "The Influence of Technology on Families"

10:15 - 10:45 **COFFEE AND TEA RECEPTION**

10:45 - 12:00 **PRESENTATIONS**

Violet
PROGRAM 2 - ***Chair:*** Mark POPE
Presenters: Xiaolu HU and Sarah TOMAN
"Career Development and Counseling Strategies in an Age of Technology"
Presenter: Wei-Cheng MAU
"Computer Based Career Intervention"

Lilac
PROGRAM 3 - ***Chair***: Lonnie ROWELL
Presenter: Peggy SMITH
"Theoretical Perspectives on the Importance of the Therapeutic Alliance and Their Implications for the Use of Technology"
Presenters: Laura HEID and Mary PARISH
"The Nature of Self-Integrated Authenticity in Counselors and Therapists"

Peony
PROGRAM 4 - ***Chair***: Don HAYS
Presenter: Louis FALIK
"Enhancing the Effectiveness of the Counselor Through Application of Mediated Learning Experience"

12:00 - 1:15 **LUNCH**

Ballroom 2

THURSDAY MAY 29

1:15 - 2:00 PRESENTATIONS

Violet
PROGRAM 5 - ***Chair:*** Laura HEID
Presenters: Ron HOOD and Geri MILLER
"Maintaining Compassion in an Era of Health Care Management Technology"

Lilac
PROGRAM 6 - ***Chair:*** Marilyn BOHAN
Presenter: John HIPPLE
"Music Performance Anxiety: An Overview of Technological Advances in Therapy, Psychopharmacology & Bio-Feedback"

Peony
PROGRAM 7 - ***Chair:*** Marge ARTERO-BONAME
Presenter: Conchita UMALI
"Pastoral Care in Assumption College: Its Concept and Practice"

Lotus
PROGRAM 8 - ***Chair:*** Phil HWANG
Presenter: Wang GUODONG
"The Homeroom Teacher's Role in Psychological Counseling at School"

2:15 - 3:00 PRESENTATIONS

Violet
PROGRAM 9 - ***Chair:*** Dorothy BREEN
Presenters: Yuriko MATSUSHITA and Koji MATSUSHITA
"Video Games: A Potential New World"

Lilac
PROGRAM 10 - ***Chair:*** Jon SAKURAI-HORITA
Presenter: Robert CHOPE
"Career Counseling for New Chinese Immigrants: Clinical Issues and Practical Recommendations"

Peony
PROGRAM 11 - ***Chair:*** Kuei-Ying Cindy CHANG
Presenters: Yung-Jong SHIAH, Wai-Cheong Carl TAM and Shih-Kuang CHIANG
"Separation-Individuation Process of Taiwan High-School Students and Its Implication in Counseling"

Lotus
PROGRAM 12 - ***Chair:*** Julia YANG
Presenter: Deng WEIZHI
"Rise to the Challenge of Science to Family"

3:15 - 4:00 PRESENTATIONS

Violet
PROGRAM 13 - ***Chair:*** Salvador CHAVEZ
Presenter: Gerald GANDY
"Disability and Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy (REBT)"

Lilac
PROGRAM 14 - ***Chair:*** Mary PARISH
Presenter: Osamu HONDA
"A Study of Family Therapy for Student Counseling"

Peony
PROGRAM 15 - ***Chair:*** Wei-Cheng MAU
Presenter: Thomas HARRINGTON
"Operationalizing the Ability Chunk of Super's Vocational Theory

THURSDAY MAY 29

3:15 - 5:00 **PRESENTATIONS**

Lotus

PROGRAM 16 - ***Chair:***: Xiaolu HU
Presenter: Mark POPE
"History and Development of Career Counseling in the USA"
Presenter: Zhang WEIYUAN
"Historical Evolution of Career Development in China and Hong Kong"

4:15 - 5:00 **PRESENTATIONS**

Violet

PROGRAM 17 - ***Chair:*** Louis FALIK
Presenter: Ming-Chao CHENG and Zong-Zieng TSENG
"A Study of Learning Strategies and the Effect of Group Counseling for Learning of Senior High Students"

Lilac

PROGRAM 18 - ***Chair:***: Judith FISHMAN
Presenter: Cheryl BARTHOLOMEW and Jeanne COSTELLO
"Cross Cultural Caring: Global Solutions for Empowering Females"

Peony

PROGRAM 19 - ***Chair:*** Carole MINOR
Presenter: Audrey HURLEY
"Understanding the Relationship Between Learning Styles and Multiculturalism for School Counselors"

5:15 - 5:45 **SPECIAL PROGRAM BY BEIJING NORMAL UNIVERSITY**

Ballroom 1

5:45 - 6:45 **COFFEE SOCIAL**

Ballroom 1

FRIDAY MAY 30

8:30 - 9:45 **SYMPOSIUM II - *Technology and Counseling***

Ballroom 1

PROGRAM 20 - ***Chair:*** Robert CHOPE
Presenter: Don HAYS
"Intimacy and Technology"
Presenter: Marilyn BOHAN
"Concerns for Counselors in the Age of Technological Danger"
Presenter: Vivian Ota WANG
"Genetics and Psychology at a Crossroad: A Road Less Travelled ?"

9:45 - 10:15 **COFFEE AND TEA RECEPTION**

FRIDAY MAY 30

10:15 - 11:45 **PRESENTATIONS**

Violet

PROGRAM 21 - ***Chair:*** Peggy SMITH
Presenter: Hui-Chuang PAI
"Reentry Difficulty, Life Satisfaction and Psychological Well-Being of Taiwanese Students Who Have Returned from the United States"
Presenter: Nancy SCOTT
"Student Success: Serving International Students in an Age of Technology"

Lilac

PROGRAM 22 - ***Chair:*** Fumiko HOSOKAWA
Presenter: Lonnie ROWELL
"Relationship Technology in an Age of Caring: Comparative/Cross Cultural Perspective on Counseling At-Risk Youth"
Presenter: Ginger MACDONALD
"Issues in Multi-Cultural Counseling Supervision"
Presenter: Joseph LIPPINCOTT
"Treating Stress Across Cultures: A Somatic-Cognitive Model"

Peony

PROGRAM 23 - ***Chair:*** Don HAYS
Presenters: Winifred STRONG and Mary HONER
"The Challenge of Grief: Counseling the Survivors"

Lotus

PROGRAM 24 - ***Chair:*** Geri MILLER
Presenters: Hsiu-Lan Shelly TIEN
"Help-Seeking Behavior of the College Students in Taiwan"
Presenter: Cecilia SOONG
"Worldview and Counselling : Perceptions of Singaporean Students"

11:45 - 12:45 **LUNCH**

Ballroom 2

12:45 - 1:30 **PRESENTATIONS**

Violet

PROGRAM 25 - ***Chair:*** Julia YANG
Presenter: Hawjeng CHIOU
"Integration of the Resources of Guidance and Counseling via Internet: Development of 'Guidance Network System' (GNS) in Taiwan"

Lilac

PROGRAM 26 - ***Chair:*** Audrey HURLEY
Presenters: Doris COY and Carole MINOR
"Technology and the School Counselor"

Peony

PROGRAM 27 - ***Chair:*** Joseph LIPPINCOTT
Presenters: Koji Matsushita and Yuriko Matsushita
"A Clinical Application of Physical Partition"

Lotus

PROGRAM 28 - ***Chair:*** Philip HWANG
Presenter: Gongbin WANG
"Keep Mental Health by Art Education"

FRIDAY MAY 30

1:45 - 2:30 PRESENTATIONS

Violet

PROGRAM 29 - ***Chair:*** Cecilia SOONG
Presenter: Marge ARTERO-BONAME
"Preliminary Exploration of Self-Esteem Construct: A Face Validity Study of the Index of Self-Esteem with a Chamoru University Student Sample"

Lilac

PROGRAM 30 - ***Chair:*** Ron HOOD
Presenter: Don MACDONALD
"The Evolution of Individualism in the Western Hemisphere and Its Implications for an East-West Dialogue"

Peony

PROGRAM 31 - ***Chair:*** Xiaolu HU
Presenters: Cao ZIFANG and Wang YI
"The Countermeasures to the Psychological Pressure of Children in the Technological Age: How to Raise the Level of Psychological Soundness in the Family"

Lotus

PROGRAM 32 - ***Chair:*** Doris COY
Presenter: Matthew CARLSON
"Finding Common Ground Between Adolescent Girls and Their Mothers: Insights from a Mother-Daughter Group"

2:45 - 3:30 PRESENTATIONS

Violet

PROGRAM 33 - ***Chair:*** John HIPPLE
Presenter: Dorothy BREEN
"School Counselors,Teachers and Parents: Using Play Techniques to Support Their Children's Development"

Lilac

PROGRAM 34 - ***Chair:*** Louis FALIK
Presenters: Yukiko KURATO and Yoshiya KURATO
"A Mental Health Care Program for the College Students Who Are Survivors of the Great Kobe-Osaka Earthquake "

Peony

PROGRAM 35 - ***Chair:*** Theresa LU
Presenter: Philip HWANG
"Self-Esteem or Self-Delusion ?"

Lotus

PROGRAM 36 - ***Chair:*** Carol TAN
Presenter: Qing JIAO
"Behavior Counseling Parents of Special Children"

3:40 - 4:20 PRESENTATIONS

Violet

PROGRAM 37 - ***Chair:*** Audrey HURLEY
Presenter: Jasuko NAKAMURA
"A Study on an Image of the "Ibasyo' or Psychologically Comfortable Space for the Children of Non-Attendant at School Through the ● ▲ ■ Technique"

Lilac

PROGRAM 38 - ***Chair:*** Geri MILLER
Presenters: Peicheng HU and Ailan WU
"Education and Counseling on Adolescent Life"

3:40 - 4:20 **PRESENTATIONS**

Peony

PROGRAM 39 - ***Chair:*** Sarah TOMAN
Presenter: Daya Singh SANDHU
"Human Dignity, Decency and Integrity as the Sine Qua Non of Human Rights Education: A Proactive Conceptual and Practical Framework for Promotion of World Peace"

Lotus

PROGRAM 40 - ***Chair:*** Xiaolu HU
Presenter: Richang ZHENG
"Psychological Counseling and Psychotherapy in China"

4:30 - 5:00 **CLOSURE**

Ballroom 1

CLOSING COMMENTS
Host University Representatives and Other Participants

HOW TECHNOLOGY IS INFLUENCING FAMILIES IN JAPAN

Yoshiya Kurato(Osaka City University)

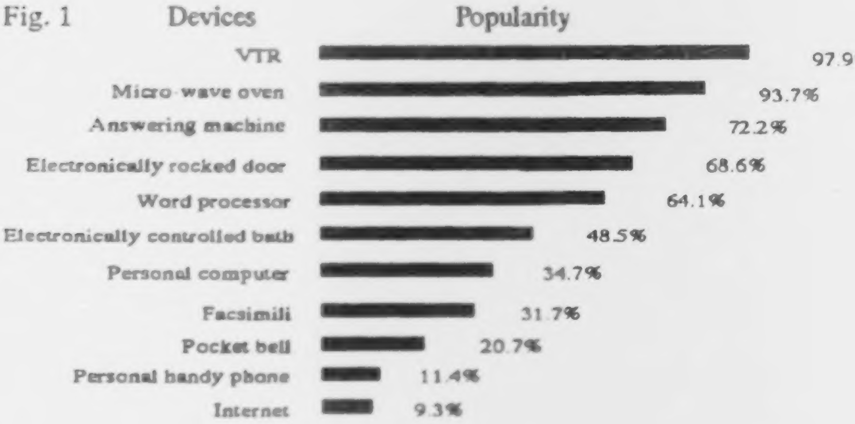
Introduction

Japan is one of the nations where technology has been highly developed. Especially, when it comes to micro-electronic devices for family use such as personal computers, micro-wave ovens, answering machines on the phones, or personal handy phones, such devices enjoy a high rate of their popularity. According to the Bureau of General Affairs in the central government (1996), the VTR was the most popular device in Japan. Its rate of the popularity was as high as 93.3% in 1996, and 78.8% in 1991, five years earlier. The VTR was followed by the answering machine at 58.4%(19.4%) Figures in parentheses are 1991. The word processor's rate was 42.8%(31.1%) . The personal handy phone's rate was 28.1%(2.6). The pocket bell's rate was 26.1%(9.1%). The personal computer's rate was 23.9%(15.5). And the facsimile came in at 14.9%(5.1%).

I Survey

A survey, conducted by the author in 1997 with 334 subjects, both male and female, is shown in Figure 1.

Fig. 1



Subjects are shown in Figures 2 and 3. As seen in the Figures 2 and 3, there are deviations in th samples in that males are smaller in number. Also, most females surveyed were college students. Therefore, these deviations might have affected the data. This has to be elaborated in further studies

Fig. 2

Sex	Subjects
females	299
males	35
Total	334

Fig. 3

Age	Subjects
~29	221
30~59	105
60~79	8

II Some positive impacts of technology upon families in Japan

The recent development of technology has had many positive influences upon families. For instance, micro-electric ovens have not only been a great convenience but also a joy for cooking. Just a couple of minutes, or 5 minutes at most, is enough to cook almost all dishes. Electrically controlled baths are also superb. It is a Japanese bath that electronically controls how much hot water there is: how hot it, or when it is ready, all by setting keys. Furthermore,it can be set by remote-control by a telephone call when one is away from home. Japanese love it since we are fond of baths. Another device is the electric vacuum cleaner which has a popularity rated almost 100% and makes house cleaning enjoyable. Shopping and banking on the internet is getting popular in the age of electronics. All in all, technology saves time and labor. Japanese housewives used to spend almost all their day cooking and house keeping, but now as technology develops they only spend two to four hours a day depending on their family size. What a great change!

TV programs that show us a different way of life in another part of the world give us joy and ideas on how to enjoy our daily lives. We feel expanded. We are experiencing a world that is becoming smaller and smaller. Communications and transactions through the computer internet are more than fun. We can communicate with anyone in the world who has a home page or an e-mail mail address on the internet. We can buy goods listed in the home pages whether it is a brand-name item in Paris or Rome. It has been fun and an eye opening experience for most of us. It contributes to helping us feel richer both physically and psychologically. This is a good side of the technology.

The survey showed that 36.9% of the subjects who have micro electronic systems at home appreciated their convenience, which was significantly more than those who had no systems ($p<0.05$). Those who have pocket bells, when compared with those who don't, tend to support the notion that technological development is good for families ($p<0.01$). Also, those who have a facsimile machine at home, when compared with those who don't, are inclined to support the notion that technological development is good for families ($p<0.01$). Likewise, those who use the internet affirmed the same notion ($p<0.01$).

III Some negative impacts upon families

While there are positive influences, there are some negative impacts as well that have occurred with advances in technology. For instance, in spite of the convenience that technology had brought to us, we have begun to ask ourselves whether we have obtained a better quality of life, that is to say, are we happier? Has the technology brought us happiness? Does it help us to get our family ties more secure?

Our survey showed that 8.9% of the total subjects recognized the negative impact on families ($p<0.01$).

Three percent of the subjects will prefer, if possible, fresh air in the country to urban conveniences. Twelve point three percent of family members have become significantly less connected to each other and seldom communicate verbally ($p<0.01$). Children spend most of their time devoted to playing family computer games. Some, for instance, play games 3 to 4 hours a day. Those who don't go to school will spend a whole day playing games. Interestingly enough, family computer games are somewhat meaningful for those who refused to go to school since the games may give yong people something to do at home while not attending school and they may have some therapeutic value. By therapeutic value I mean that there are games which require them to interact with others, in order to win or finish the game. And there are games that help them to express anger while playing and hence, catharsis. Also, for some it is a device that enables to become aware of their feelings. These may be considered as positive aspects of the family computer games.

Adults are not an exception when it comes to the computer and internet. They spend hours of their time on it while they are at home. Other family members, such as wives and children complain about it. It is symbolic that a newly wed bride once told me that "He is married to his computer, not me. He spends almost the whole weekend with the computer and I am left alone home feeling lonely."

Expenses for using the internet are not cheap. Some will pay about US$400 to 500 a month for a telephone bill that is mainly the expense for the internet. This is compounded by the bill for a pocket bell system if they have a teenage girl. It usually amounts to about US$300 to $400 a month in addition to the internet bill. This creates the concerns the family and often escalates to a serious family battle.

Those who have personal computers at home, compared with those who don't, had significantly more stress ($p<0.05$). Moreover, 13.8% of those who have personal computers complained about eye fatigue, stiff shoulders, or physical fatigue ($p<0.05$).

Another problem reported in the survey was that there were some who compulsively think they have to respond to every message they receive on the internet. But it is sometimes too much to respond to and they become depressed as they don't know what to do. This problem's symptoms resemble those of burnout syndrome.

There were 26.6% of the subjects that reported they felt stressed when manipulating the micro electronic systems ($p<0.01$). Who gets to watch what TV channel creates conflict between mothers and children (3.9%), between fathers and children (1.8%), and between husbands and wives (3.0%). Long conversations on the phone causes stress for families (5.1%). This may result in polarization of family members one against another.

A high school girl student responded in our survey that she is afraid of the sound of her pocket bell, but she is not able to switch off the bell because if she does she thinks she will be treated harshly by her friends. Bullying is a big social problem in Japan. On the other hand, she gets too nervous to respond becouse she might make a mistake when answering the bell. Also, among those who communicate with their parents via the pocket bell, there are some who feel they are watched and controlled by their parents. There were 8.7% of the subjects who felt stressed when the pocket bell rung ($p<0.05$). It was reported that the TV tended to reduce family conversation (11.4%), which was more than those who responded that TV facilitated more conversation(3.0%).

In general, there were 6.3% of the subjects who were afraid of the technological development which is too quick to catch up (6.3%) and felt uneasy to use those devices found in homes.

IV Some policy changes to address technological impact on people

Regarding computer communication on the internet, first of all, we must have computers at home and must have a good command of the English language if we are to interact with others on the internet. However, our housing is not spacious enough in most cases to accommodate a computer, so living room or dinning room is occupied with the machine and conflicts with children who tend to prefer to watch the TV which is also on in those rooms. This creates arguments as to what the living room or dining room is all about and hence, brings conceptual change. On the other hand, we are not accustomed to the languages that are used on the internet nor are we used to e-mail addresses if we communicate overseas, so we are limited language-wise.

Secondly, we are inclined to depend on technology that is so convenient to use, so much that we may have the same dependent attitude as alcoholics. For instance, we depend on the computer to look up Japanese KANJI words instead of consulting a dictionary. At the same time convenience tends to produce low tolerance. For instance, we soon switch on air conditioner when it is only a little hot or cold.

Thirdly, technology has been encouraging us to change our value systems. For instance, TV programs that show another way of life in a different part of the world inevitably affects our thinking and behavior. World wide communication and transactions through the internet on personal computers is also changing our value systems. Anyway you look at it, the computer age has come with an accelerated speed and computers will dominate human beings if we don't know what they are: what they are for; and how we use them.

Once in a department store in Japan I thought I saw tropical fish in a huge aquarium, which was about the size of dinning table. The fish were colorful and different shapes, and were swimming in the tropical surroundings. Everything was so beautiful that I kept watching it for a while before I realized that it was a video tape and the aquarium was not real but a fine flat TV set that was so shaped. This is virtual reality. On the way back home I bought a small version of the aquarium. Just a picture frame-size. I enjoy it at home. Nevertheless, once in a while I feel I am no where because what I am surrounded by is not real after all. Of course they are fine. And machines such as TVs, VTRs, answering machines, bath facilities, cooking facilities, or computers, are all magnificent, but they are made with solid materials. Even tropical fishes! I question whether I am one of them and whether I am alive in this world, could I be virtual reality also. Furthemore there is no clear distinction between day time and night time. It goes on 24 hours day after day. This may lead to a feeling of boundarilessness, which is common to people of today.

IV Counseling families

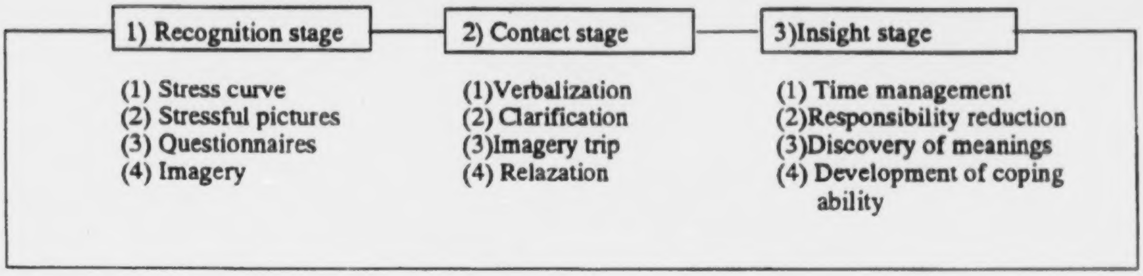
Before we can say something about counseling those who are harmed by technology, we ought to identify what their problems are or what symptoms they have when harmed. According to my experience, irritation, stress, fear to touch anything that are controlled by micro-electronic systems, depression, or withdrawal attitudes have been observed among those who are harmed.

Therefore, my counseling has been aimed at dealing with those things stated above, which is nothing special but the usual counseling that I do for my daily practice. The only difference is that I would be more focused on what has been happening inside families from a family therapeutic point of view, not paying attention only to those who are harmed but also the family systems in which the problems or symptoms occur.

Attending where they are at is what I try to do in the first place since they feel left out from the families or they are not catching up with the constant and rapid change in technology. Listening and responding is another technique. Especially, I have found that listening with simple acceptance is very helpful for those who have a fear of micro-electronic systems. For those who are tired of technology, a fantasy trip to places they want to visit is useful. One went back, in a fantasy trip, to a "home town" which was in the countryside with a lot of nature. She realized how much she missed her life as a child in the country. After the counseling session, she smiled and said, "I'll take my children with me to my home town during the next vacation."

For those who have stress and depression, the stress management model that has been developed and used for teacher burnout by the author, but hasn't been applied for those harmed by technology in home, may be encouraging. It is as follows;

A Hypothetical Model for Stress Management(Kurato, 1988)



1) Recognition stage

(1) Stress curve
(2) Stressful pictures
(3) Questionnaires
(4) Imagery

2) Contact stage

(1)Verbalization
(2) Clarification
(3)Imagery trip
(4) Relazation

3)Insight stage

(1) Time management
(2)Responsibility reduction
(3)Discovery of meanings
(4) Development of coping ability

This hypothetical model has been applied to both group counseling and stress management workshops conducted by the author. Its results have been clinically working well (Kurato, 1989). The model consists of three stages: *Recognition stage, Contact stage, and Insight stage*. The three stages sometimes take two consecutive days to process in a workshop situation. What is good about the model is that it helps to identify the degree of stress and helps people to discover meanings of their struggle or to get insight what they are experiencing.

References

The Bureau of General Affairs *Annual Statistical Reports,* 1996.

Humphrey, J. H. *Children and stress;Theoretical perspectives and recent research,* AMS Press, 1988.

Kurato, Y. "Toward a hypothetical model of stress management for teacher burnout," *Bulletin of Naruto University of Education,* Vol. 6, 227-235, 1991.

A Vision of an Intelligent Island

Cecilia Soong

Lecturer, National Institute of Education
Singapore

Introduction

Singapore is a small island with a land area of 647.5sq km, spanning 42 km from East to West, and 23 km from North to South. It has a population of 2,986,500, with an ethnic composition of Chinese (77.4%), Malays (14.2%), Indians (7.2%), and people from other ethnic groups (1.2%). She has a per capita GNP of $35,035.8, and a per capita GDP of $34,788.4. Singapore's labour force comprises 1.748m people, and the unemployment rate is 2.7%.

The state of Information Technology (IT) in Singapore

The information society, according to Martin (1995), is ' a society in which the quality of life, as well as prospects for social change and economic development, depend increasingly upon information and its exploitation. In such a society, living standards, patterns of work and leisure, the education system and the marketplace are all influenced markedly by advances in information and knowledge. This is evidenced by an increasing array of information-intensive products and services, communicated through a wide range of media, many of them electronic in nature.'

The Singapore government is a strong supporter and advocate of IT, so well enunciated by Mr Goh Chok Tong, Prime Minister of Singapore, 'The future belongs to countries whose people make the most productive use of information, knowledge and technology.' (1993) To this end, the vision of Singapore as an intelligent island is encapsulated in the IT2000 Plan. Together with 14 leading technology companies, including Microsoft and IBM investing $100m, the government has committed $82m towards the Singapore ONE project - a major component of the IT2000 Plan. This is an island-wide network to develop multimedia applications and services.

Singapore's national computerization plan started in 1980 where there were only 850 computer professionals; in 1995, this figure escalated to 80,000, with more than 90% of companies using IT. According to the World Computerization Report, Singapore is among the top nations in the world to have effectively exploited IT; and culled from the Computer Industry

Almanac (1991), Singapore is one of the top ten countries in terms of number of computer per capita.

IT2000 seeks to develop a global hub for business, services and transportation; to boost the economic engine in manufacturing, commerce, construction and tourism; to enhance the potentials of individuals in multimedia learning, interactive distance education, extension of media to cultural institutions, knowledge navigation and provision of extra help for the disadvantaged; to link communities nationally and internationally through community telecomputing networks and the Singapore International Net; and to improve the quality of life with one-stop, non-stop government and business services, teleshopping, cashless transactions, more options for leisure, easy computing, telecommuting, better healthcare and intelligent buildings.

Singapore's emphasis on education has been unrivalled, gaining the greatest proportion of the government's budget pie. One of the three priorities for Singapore's education system as it heralds into the 21st century is to exploit computer technology for enhancing classroom learning. This translates to a five-year masterplan, costing $1.5b to use IT more widely in the classroom. By this year, every primary school will have at least 100 computers, and pupils will spend 10% of curriculum time learning in an IT environment.

In terms of ownership of personal computers in Singapore households, one in three households owns a personal computer, according to a survey. The typical home computer user is a man, a young working adult aged between 20 and 29, who has tertiary qualifications, the survey also found.

Drawing from the previous paragraphs on IT in Singapore, the positive impacts of IT on the Singapore family are mainly economic. Mr Ko Kheng Hwa, the chief executive of the National Computer Board, explicates that IT is critical to Singapore's national competitive advantage and our development economically. The coming of the IT age, according to the Minister of Education, Rear-Admiral Teo Chee Hean, has a big impact on the way we lead our lives, how we work, study, enjoy our leisure time in the workplace, in schools and at home. In redefining how we interact with our fellowmen, IT is not just a technological revolution, but a dramatic social revolution as well.

In the area of education, families, especially the parents, can continue their learning through distance learning. Aimed at strengthening bonds, families can be linked to their members studying or working overseas via the Internet. IT also creates other ways to form social bonds, linking parents together, linking old folks together or linking volunteers together.

In making transactions more efficient, either through teleshopping or engaging in government and business services, there is more discretionary time, leaving the family members more time for leisure whereby there can be more interesting pursuits. Hence, their quality of life - culturally, socially and intellectually - can be improved.

Negative impact of IT and challenges for the government

Economically

Garson (1995) delineated the four horsemen of the apocalyptic theories of computing as despotism, dehumanization, de-skilling and disemployment. Certain jobs will be obsolete, and this may not involve only those unskilled and low-skilled jobs. Jobs that require much training and skill like shorthand and draughtsmanship, will be displaced and replaced by wordprocessing, voice-recognition and computer-aided design and manufacturing systems. However, new jobs will be created especially for those able to master the latest developments in IT. To redress this issue, the Singapore government, harnessing the Skills Development Fund, is constantly re-training and re-skilling her workforce.

IT is a double-edge thing; while it gives speed, efficiency and effectiveness, paradoxically, it puts demands on one's time, one's working and family life. Technology has not made life easier, just busier. In this way, it engenders much stress, especially in a highly competitive and achievement-oriented society like Singapore.

In attempts to counteract the effects of fast-paced living and the over-emphasis on the ethos of excellence, the government has been promoting the notion of gracious living among Singaporeans. The latter are encouraged to take time to enjoy the arts, to cultivate the reading habit and the like, instead of being overly obsessive with amassing material wealth. Such efforts are fledgling at the school level, with music, art and drama appreciation programmes.

Socially

A survey has found that personal computer users, especially Internet surfers, are watching less TV, exercising less and spending less time with their family. It discovers that Net users spend an average of nine hours a week on-line; some avid surfers responded that they spend 20 hours a week in cyberspace. About 50% of the 4,000 respondents also said they were sleeping less; and 840 respondents said these had taken over their social life. They said they now spent three to four hours a week with friends and family, which is less than before. Parents also think that their children tend to spend too much time on computer games. As for the Internet being an addiction, Dr John Elliot, a National University of Singapore psychologist, said, 'Unless it starts to affect a person's day-to-day functioning, such as forgetting to turn up at work, or relationships being strained - if it happens, then it becomes a worry; otherwise it's fine.'

Singaporeans' main concern of computers is much more physical - they feel that using them hurts the eyesight. The social impact appears minimal, for after all, although something 'human' may be lost in computerization, 'humans are remarkably resilient and seem to find new ways of establishing authentic interpersonal relationships regardless of the state of technology' (Garson, 1995).

Politically

The IT age expands our information space, with the exchange of information made possible almost instantaneously with people around the world, whether it be conducting business or looking up databases. However, the nagging doubt is that if Singaporeans are so plugged into the world and the region, would they wander off to live their lives elsewhere, or transfer their business activities elsewhere? In conjunction with the government's encouragement for Singaporeans to think globally, will Singaporeans wander off and become lost in cyberspace?

To ensure that Singaporeans are rooted to Singapore, the government has enshrined the following shared values for Singaporeans to adopt: nation before community and society before self; family as a basic unit of society; community support and respect for the individual; consensus, not conflict; and racial and religious harmony. Furthermore, to keep the family intact, these family values are promulgated: love, care and concern; mutual respect; filial responsibility; commitment; and communication.

In addition, to foster a sense of community abroad, Singapore clubs are spotted all over the globe, with the Singapore International Foundation spearheading these projects. To further pre-empt the brain-flow and to instil in Singaporeans loyalty to the nation, another priority of Singapore's education is to emphasize national education. The goal is to ensure that students are aware of Singapore's constraints and opportunities, and it will be delivered through community service and commemoration of key historical events.

Morally

With regard tot he Internet, with more than 7m people at 1.2m attached hosts in 117 countries (Martin, 1995), there have been complaints which were allegedly upset by the political, religious or racist content of the messages. The most contentious, however, is the alleged pornography on the Internet. The dangers of the easy flow and interchange of information cannot be over-emphasized. Censorship rules in the rest of the world have gone berserk, and one really cannot control as people are at the mercy of anyone who wants to create websites of objectionable material. Moreover, as English is more prevalent in the information services, there is potential erosion of our culture and value systems.

Although standards of control are required, a sense of balance is reasonable. In the case of over-control, one loses the benefits one can get from being connected with the Internet. Nevertheless, some restraint of contents is expedient, not just contents with anti-government ideas, but ideas with impact on the social harmony, e.g., pornography, violence. According to Brigadier-General George Yeo, Minister of Information and the Arts (1996), it is the responsibility of service providers to block their gateways so that access to objectionable materials can be controlled.

The ultimate way to ward off the undesirable influences is self-regulation. To achieve self-control, the government is educating the public on the sort of values that Singaporeans want for their own country and society. Such teaching is again endemic in schools where values are taught in moral education classes. Parents too, are the target of the new Public Education sub-committee of the National Internet Advisory Committee. Net-confused parents can ask questions and hold forums on the specially created web pages on tips for parents. Such tips include inculcating proper netiquette, telling children to report suspicious activities to them, exploring the Internet with their children, never responding to offensive messages, encouraging children to share what they have encountered on-line, and not to meet face-to-face with another computer user met on-line. Parents are also encouraged to install filtering programmes, like Netnanny -although not fool proof- to cut off access to undesirable items.

Community policing is also a government initiated measure where collectively as a group, Net-users show a 'symbolic' attempt to avert all unpleasant influences, to either collectively ban it or not look at it.

Helping families in the IT age

The changing Singapore family in the 1990s is characterized by dual-income families and nuclear families which necessitate increasing childcare services and services of domestic maids. Moreover, the rate of divorce has escalated, giving rise to an increased number of single-parent families. Consequently, family-related problems in Singapore in the 1990s are stress-related problems, runaways, juvenile delinquency and gangsterism, and teen suicide.

The level of stress is compounded by the stress brought about by technology, and the ease of use, accessibility and affordability of videos on demand and home entertainment, which pose a challenge to the moral fibre of society. It behooves counsellors to address stress in the IT age. In dealing with stress in the IT age, one needs to be aware of how stress affects the body both physically and mentally. This leads to an analysis of the source of stress. Acceptance is a vital stress management technique, of knowing one's limits and lowering one's expectations according to one's ability and capability. Teaching clients to be accountable - to do something to correct the problem before it gets out of control, is another important step. A last move is adaptability - staying in control of stressful situations, overcoming obstacles, neutralizing all negative thoughts, practising time management, being in a relaxed frame of mind, learning how to express one's feelings and listing one's priorities in life. Helping the client understand and manage stress is veritably of paramount importance in the IT age.

Taking a proactive stance, in Singapore, public education programmes are a prevailing mode of psycho-education. These are delivered by the various government ministries like the Ministry of Community Development, or the family service centres sprouted all over the island. Schools too encourage family life education, as part of their pastoral care and career guidance programme, with parents being the main targets. Counsellors and social workers would provide meaningful insights in addressing issues like family relationships and communications, stress management, morality, values and decision-making.

Conclusion

Willy-nilly, the IT age is here to stay, and will move beyond 2000. Change is a given, but the kind of change which denotes a major transformation in the ordering of social affairs is open to question. To anticipate the accompanying social revolution, one needs to take stock of one's position and to pre-empt the problems that may beset oneself and one's social milieu of family, friends and the community.

Technology and Cultural Change: Implications in Counseling Taiwan Chinese Families

Julia Yang, Ph.D., Chair
Department of Counseling and Guidance
National Kaohsiung Normal University

Rationale

Taiwan, like other developed countries, has been well served in its technological advances. The benefits of health, mobility, material comforts, and the overcoming of the physical problems of communication are well enjoyed by most Taiwan Chinese families. Along with the prevalence of technology in our everyday life is the change of attitudes, activities, as well as processes and products of our survival and adjustment (Yu, 1988). With the technological modifications, our sets of values in the world of work, education, business, human relationships and famil, as well as personal life styles are reexamined and redefined. Impacts of technological changes on families, thus, need to be examined in a context of cultural change. The following examines impacts of technology on Taiwan Chinese families in the contexts of cultural transition as well as human relationships. Implications in counseling are also provided. As empirical data of the prevalence of technology in Taiwan Chinese families is extremely scarce, the following discussion is partially drawn from interviews with two Taiwan Chinese scholars. L.S. Lee, Chair, Department of Industrial Technology Education, National Taiwan Normal University, and K. H. Tsen, Chair, Department of Industrial Technology Education, National Kaohsiung Normal University.

Modernization: Families in Context

In the past two decades, Taiwan has undergone much societal changes responding to so called modernization. Modernization is a process in which a society matures. Often referred to as westernization, modernization denotes the phenomenon of rapid changes with internalized influences from the west such as individualistic world view, democracy, capitalism and mostly technology (Li, 1994). One must avoid, however, the simplicity to equate western cultural values or technological advances to social progress (King, 1991). Li (1994) contended that the convergence theory was not successful predicting that modern industrial economy would mold the future development of non-Western families into the patterns of western families. In a society like Taiwan which has moved rapidly from the premodern (agricultural) to modern (industrial) and now to post modern era within the last two decades, people are bound to experience transitions between and the co-presence of the new and the old, the industrial and the traditional, the westernized and the indigenous (Yang, 1991; Stickel and Yang, 1993).

The philosophy of Confucianism, transitions from agriculture, industrial to post industrial society, and the strong family tie and kinship are three core influencing aspects of Taiwan Chinese culture (Miller, Yang, and Chen, 1997). A few family sociologists tended to agree that Confucianist values of hard work and familial/societal role structure persist to have impacts on Chinese families in spite of western cultural influences (Mei, 1994; Lin, 1994; & Marsh, & Hsu, 1994). Social progress and modernity, however, inevitably result in altering social and relational structures as well as necessitating a new value system of social adjustment and integration. For example, emergence of neo-confucianism supporting pursuing knowledge and science has become an important factor contributing to rapid economic growth in some Asian countries (King, 1991; Sung, 1983).

Economic productivity of Taiwan Chinese is partially attributed to accessibility and availability of technology at home and at work (Sung, 1983). Fundamental changes can be found in every aspect of life inside and outside of the home. Families as the corner stone of Taiwan Chinese social interdependence are being restructured in their living arrangements and their financial, physical and psychological support functions (Li, 1994). Among the common characteristics of modern Taiwan Chinese families are urbanization, low birth rates, higher divorce rates, changing gender roles, changing family relationships and family structure, etc. These indicators of family instabilities are sometimes associated with socioeconomic development in a time of cultural change.

For Better or Worse: Technological Advances and Consequences

Although statistical data is scarce, several categories of technology, required or optional, are prevailing both in city and tural Taiwan Chinese family living. They are audiovisual systems, home computer system, home electronically appliances, home security alarm system and transportation vehicles such as motorcycles and automobiles, just to name a few. According to the 1994 study by C.T. Foundation, most Taiwan Chinese families owned at least one TV set (40%), two (31%), or more than two (22%). Electronic devices are also widely used in public/home entertainment and recreation. On average, there is a flight taking off every five minutes carrying passengers between the two largest cities of Taiwan. Overall, technological advances bring overall enhanced communication and quality of living in the families.

Technology can become problematic when the users would confuse means with the ends. Most concerns shared among educators are how TV watching and the unmonitored cable TV programs may model passive, violent, premature sexual intimacy, and other risk taking behaviors in children and adolescents. The public concern has directed it attention to the easy access to inappropriate electronic information give and take without sufficient supervision. The massive time adolescents and adults spent on computer games, internet and e-mail systems can decrease or even replace time spent on out door activities or human interactions. Among the most extremes is the teenagers' notorious motorcycle riding all over the major cities in Taiwan on the weekends and school breaks that killed and hurt many innocents in the past decade (Yang, 1996). Sadly speaking, the largest cash deal business in Taiwan was once illegal prostitution of school aged young females disguised and managed by high tech communication devices (Yu, 1996).

Problem of technology in Taiwan has long surfaced with environmental concerns. Most Taiwan Chinese face environmental consequences of urbanization and technological development: traffic hassles and accidents, pollution in the air and water, high noise level etc. Mixture of residence and business districts have resulted in numerous deadly fires of public buildings. After the lifting of martial law in 1987, abusive earth digging has caused numerous flooding. Secondary consequences of lack of environmental conservation are public health and psychological fears and anxiety of public safety.

Technology and Family Relationships

Marsh and Hsu (1994) found that kinship ties of Taiwan Chinese are not absent during social modernization and that levels sociability with extended kin are even higher . The traditional (ideal) Chinese partrilineal kinship ties have decreased while the actual extended kinship behaviors have increased. When transportation and communication encourage more economic involvement in urban areas, contacts with kins have also changed from fixed and formal obligation to bilateral, voluntary choice for leisure and social support purposes.

A society based on sophisticated technologies will tend to legitimate the product of knowledge and extraordinary performance (Winner, 1979). That means new form of expertise and accomplishment is imposed on activities and social relations. This is very different from the Confucius teaching of Chinese families ethics that prescribe proper hierarchical relationships among family roles. Harmony of the Chinese family is traditionally ensured by honoring these principles. Yang (in Wang, 1994) was convinced that technology eventually causes three types of alienation. They are alienation between (1) man and himself, (2) man and others, and (3) man and the nature. A society used to obey the nature is now attempting to challenge and dominate the nature. Cultural and social alienation may transform the world view from what was collectivist to individualistic. Competitiveness, distrust, anxiety of the individuals may all contribute to disequlibrium of family relationships. Traditional Taiwan Chinese concepts of power and authority--tradition, religion, natural law are inevitably yielding to the new mode of legitimization. Technological modifications could lead to the entire remaking of Taiwan Chinese family life's framework which may begin with these conflicts but better along with the coping with them.

Implications in Counseling Taiwan Chinese Families

In preparing this article, the author encountered many writings promoting technological competitiveness and scientific excellence in education but none in questioning adequacy of technological applications or cultivating the thoughts of appropriate technology in modern families. Nevertheless, counselors who are aware of both the promises and limitations of technology can develop better insights and strategies dealing with families which experience unprepared, unpredicted or unwanted changes due to cultural transition and technological advance.

In a time when technological impact seems to be everywhere within human reach, counselors dealing with families in conflicts play an instrumental role in raising consciousness of the pervasive ignorance of the changing life styles among family members. While traditional family values persist to have impact on Taiwan Chinese, modern technology and its seemingly infinite possibilities of achievement can become a license to forget. Counselors, thus, may need to challenge the discrepancy between the deep rooted Confucius family orientation and the new form of power and authority of individuals in the family modified by technological advances. For those families which are dictated by inappropriate technological uses, counselors must first confront the issues of psychological and mental habits as indications overdependency and irresponsibility. Counselors then can facilitate the retaining of the best family belifes, as well as reconstruction of ethics and rearrangements of family relationships. In this sense, the social constructivist approach in counseling (Ivey, Ivey, and Simek-Morgan, 1997), which simultaneously stresses the social/cultural meaning of the situation and problem solving accompanied by reconstructed understanding and pragmatic action, appears appropriate working with Taiwan Chinese families.

Counselors need not stay passive only to remediate for negative technological impacts on Taiwan Chinese families. They can adopt the educative approach, already familiar to Taiwan Chinese culture, in bridging the scientific and humanistic aspects of modern family living. One example is to advocate for critical thinking and self evaluation skills of individuals facing multiple options availed by technology. Although assess to technology and information becomes easier, technology can not replace the importance of learning the basic skills and personal and professional ethics. Counselors can therefore become active agents participating in the extraperonsal efforts to promote for rehumanization of modern technological applications and conservation of environment and nature. Furthermore, counselors may join/initiate interdisciplinary net work for structural changes. Practical suggestions by technological educators include (1) supplying families with appropriate knowledge to minimize the technological harm though family education programs, (2) maximizing technological literacy through general education in college and extended education for adults like homemakers, and (3) making policies for the technological service delivery systems to meet the needs of society yet protect equity and rights of consumers.

Impacts of Credit Cards on Individuals, Families and Society in Hong Kong: an exploration

Alfred C. M. Chan, City University of Hong Kong

Introduction

Technology and its products infiltrate almost every aspect of our life: office automation (e.g. computers), communication between individuals (e.g. mobile phones), and home living (e.g. security systems) etc.. In reaction to the development of new technology, people's life changes. It is difficult to come to any conclusion that whether such technological advances and the impacts they bring for individuals and their families are good or bad. The fact is that technologies are here and are affecting our life, it is better that the goods are allowed to remain and the bads are provided with remedies. With such a philosophical stance, the present paper attempts to provide a preliminary analysis for the possible impacts of a selected information technology - i.e. credit cards - on individuals and their families in Hong Kong; as promotion of credit cards (by suppliers) and adoption of them (by consumers) are particularly illustrative in changes in attitude and behaviour in Hong Kong.

The analysis focuses on two types of credit cards: the bank credit cards and the retailer credit cards. A brief history of their adoption in Hong Kong is given in comparison to the same development in the United States (US) - this serves to demonstrate the take-up rate of Hong Kong people is still low, despite its growth has been very fast for the past 5 years. Having reviewed relevant literature, research studies and news reports on the subject areas, Hong Kong people, while they are enjoying the freedom and convenience of 'plastic money', are seen to follow US people's foot steps into easy future spending and incurring huge debts. The analysis on credit card's adoption reveals some problems experienced by families and society as a whole in Hong Kong. In response to these new emerging problems, social welfare professionals are urged to gain new intervention skills and knowledge accordingly.

Types of Credit Card

The primary function of credit cards is to substitute cash and thus simplifying cash transactions. Credit cards are used to prepaid for services (e.g. Travel and Entertainment

Such new adoption of technology inevitably brings demands on individuals to change their attitude and behaviour in spending money accordingly. Impacts (categorised into 'changes in the concept of money spending', 'changes in banking activities', and 'changes in purchasing activities') on consumers (i.e. individuals and their families) have been observed to have some differences for people from different social class status (loosely defined as related to the income and education levels, and occupation), and for different age groups.

Impacts on Individual and Family Level

Changes in the Concept of Money Spending

The working class people, with reference to their acceptance to the 'spending future money' concept - of which credit cards are encouraging, are resistant to the idea initially. The Chinese in Hong Kong can be described as largely 'agrarian' up until the early 80s. The traditional attitude and behaviour towards money spending were to 'save for the rainy days' and that it was face-loosing to borrow money, in addition these people may fear that they cannot pay back the money with interests if their earnings are low. Such a rooted cultural trait did not deter the acceptance but only delayed the adoption of credit spending in this group, the demands (temptations to be more appropriate) made on them, including the presumed good credit status and convenience, force them to accept the new money concept. However, due to this group's lower income and education levels, and their usual engagement in so-called 'high financial risk' occupations such as jobs with unstable incomes, approvals of credit cards do not come so easily. However, increasingly there are banks and retailers who are keen to capture a larger credit market and are ready for higher risks in attracting these customers.

The middle and upper classes generally adapt better in changes and are more realistic in adoption of new technology, due primarily to their higher education and therefore a better understanding in the concept; in addition they are likely to enjoy the maximum benefits of the designed usage, as they are the prime targets of credit card operators because of their stable earnings and good occupation.

With reference to age differences, the below 18 and the above 60 (retired elderly people) are required to change little in their attitude and activities, as they are normally dependent on others for money support and are not the targets for credit card operators. Nonetheless, the below 18 may not be accepted as principle holders as they are not considered to be self-responsible by law in Hong Kong; as for the 60+ it is expected that with deeper rooted traditional orientation to money, the elderly people are more resistant to the idea and tend to think that credit spending will bring risks rather than convenience. Moreover, the elderly group in Hong Kong is low both in income and education, thus are not the prime customers of credit cards. A survey (Cheung and Chan, 1989) in Hong Kong confirmed that no credit card holder was below 18 and only 0.5% of all holders were aged 60+. The same survey also noted that people aged 18 to 22 (mainly were university students), though only constituted 6% of all credit card holders at the time, were becoming potential credit spenders with their parents as guarantors. With aggressive promotions (e.g. with pre-approved large spending limits up to HK$30,000, attractive gifts and discounted purchases) organised through banks in universities (one in each of the six universities in Hong Kong) to encourage undergraduates to get their credit cards, and with a peer culture of 'spend now, pay later' among students today, young university students will find the temptations of credit cards too hard to resist (Economist, 1992). This is a group who is keen on the concept and spends readily, yet they may have to rely on their parents to pay for what they have spent without their parents' prior approval. There is not much evidence to show that this group spends lavishly because of their adoption of credit cards (Chan, 1993), but consumer debts among these people are becoming a trend (Economist, 1992).

For the 22-60 economically active and relatively better educated group, one would have expected that they could make the best of credit cards. However, experience both in the US, Japan (Economist, 1992) and in Hong Kong (Choice, 1996) shows that many of these people run into large debts. For Japan it was US$475, for US it was US$2,930.

In this aspect, as we have discussed, because of their relatively low adoption of credit cards in Hong Kong, most working class individuals maintain this habit. Therefore, they pay cash as usual on almost all of their purchasing.

For middle and upper class, since they enjoy credit card's convenience in purchasing and monthly settlement. Retail outlets establish more check out points accepting credit card- and/or EPS- payment. There is another trend in Hong Kong mostly in the retail services sector (e.g.travel agents, private clubs) too. Third party agencies such as private clubs in association with a bank are issuing all-in-one credit-membership cards for the chosen few - so an added prestige and social standing to those who are qualified for the cards.

Considering the age differences, again the below 18 and the above 60 are 'drop-outs' of the game. Those aged 18-22, again mainly college and university students, have found spending a lot easier and more readily with a credit card in a retail store - they do not need to save up money like what they used to do, then come back a few weeks later and have found that their favourite item was sold. The adult group in general welcomes the retail credit cards, as the operations involved really are for their benefits: 'buy now pay later' safeguards the quality of the goods, time-saving at check outs, no need to bring cash or loose changes etc.. The pace and style of the new operations match their liking.

Overall Impacts on Families and Society

While there are lots of advantages in credit cards, some of which were discussed in this paper, problems emerged are of a new kind and are requiring innovative solutions. These problems now experienced by our families and society are largely derivatives of credit cards' misuses that can be prevented.

The Trend of Increasing Credit Debt

Although there is evidence to show those credit cards' holders in Hong Kong are wise spenders, the potential danger of incurring huge debts is evidently increasing. News reports are getting more in recent months about tragic endings of those who could not pay up for the debts (e.g.disappeared from their families, committed suicide, and had their house door chained and families burnt to death by debt collectors). The competition between banks for high risk returns (for which credit cards business is one, it charges interests up to an annual rate 51.1% (Choice, 1996)), encourages the banks in Hong Kong to follow the foot steps of US to relax of credit cards approval to cover almost any one. A study in US(Celarier, 1996) showed that, in 1995 and 1996, an astonishing 5 billion credit cards offered, many of them pre-approved, to college and high-school students, and even the unemployed. The Choice magazine (1966) in Hong Kong also noted the same and cautioned that as credit card holders might not realise the heavy interests imposed, they were likely to incur huge debts as the debts accumulated. In parallel with the increase in the issue of credit cards, banks are stepping up their actions to recover debts - it is a common practice for banks to hire 'persistent' debt collectors to recover their debts from individuals and families. Mean used by these collectors ranging from persistent disturbances to debtors' families (e.g.mid-night calls, nasty letters) to criminal acts (e.g. paint spray 'pay back the money moron 'on debtors' doors , chained up their house doors, or even set fire to the door as warnings). There is no doubt that credit card debts are raising concerns from the social welfare professionals in Hong Kong, so much so to the extend that they are putting pressure on the government for more control over debts collection, as well as they are urging the banks not to give out credit cards so easily.

Unhealthy credit debts are becoming a serious problem not only for individuals but their families as well. For example, 1.1 million families in the US are expected to file for bankruptcy due primarily to credit card debts in 1996, a 26% increase over 1995. Many of these families broke up as a result. It is argued that legislators and social policy makers have to be mindful over measures that can assist healthy budgeting for family spending - what seemingly an area of private matter now becomes a public concern.

For another aspect within the family in parent-child interaction, the parents can control spending of their non-earning children by with cash transactions - the children have to get approval first for the items they want. Now with credit cards (supplementary cards for children), especially for those studying overseas, parents only learn about their children's spending after they have the statements. There are of course positive and negative sides of the practice, but it is evident in Hong Kong that in extreme cases where children (including those at colleges and universities) spend beyond their parents income ability and parents were prosecuted for the debts as they served as guarantors. A recent news report noted that some parents had no choice but to make public declarations to end the parent-child relationship as a result to avoid being the next-of-kin of the debtors.

The banks thrive on interests charged on credits, and people increasingly are relying on credit cards for their daily purchases and banking including paying their mortgages. Credit cards are beneficial to both so long if they are utilised properly. The only right way, proposed by many researchers, to cope with the emerging social problems is a proper financial education for all individuals from students to upper class family. There are now studies to show that 'a stitch in time saves many' - a study in US (Cleaver and Martin, 1996) showed that many programs sponsored by both industry groups and individual companies are out-reaching to give credit cards holders the right information at the right time to help them stay on the straight and narrow path of proper credit management. A proposal to incorporate a curriculum for credit education right from kindergartens has been well accepted in the US (Harris, 1996). It is not too early to alert professionals in the fields (social welfare, education and the like) to start with the same.

Fraud and Security

The using of credit card requires an authorisation and verification procedure that may or may not involve visual identity (e.g.use of a personal pin number). To do this, retailer cashiers often use some sort of electronic device to communicate with the bank or card issuers' computer systems for customer account confirmation. Development of advance telecommunication technology facilitates purchasing activities by improving the efficiency and effectiveness of this authorisation and verification procedure. However, the professional criminals also utilise the same technology to crack into the systems (e.g. forgery credit cards, falsified computer transactions). There are increasing incidents to indicate that machine and non-personal transactions could encourage other kind of fraud: financial loss as a result of cards being stolen is getting more frequent, counterfeited cards are getting more common. (Crawford, 1992). A study (Banking World, 1992) signalled all card issuers and retailers that potential fraud is the biggest issue facing them. The study found that, in UK, plastic card fraud losses grew to 165 million sterling pounds in 1991, up 35% from the previous year.

The short term weapon in the battle against fraud is the use of advanced technology for credit card verification and authorisation at the point of sale - which soon enough criminals will find a way to crack down, and the long term weapon is through education at both community and schools - which seems to be the most appropriate measure.

Another research (Crawford, 1992) also identified that, nowadays, massive amounts of sensitive and personal information are electronically stored in different computer systems. Under the development of advance networking technology, networked computer systems create a potential for unknown or unauthorised person to access to that confidential information. Likewise for credit card holders' personal information, unauthorised uses of all this information can lead to unprecedented rise in different types of crime. Therefore, information security, privacy of personal information and its legislative control are becoming major social issues . The transfer of credit information in particular is a focal concern, especially when credit card holders' information is of interests to all potential business operators.

Human Machine Interaction

Credit cards actually enable a trend towards funds being transferred globally, electronically and quickly through a piece of plastic with a magnetic strip. No matter bank tellers, retailer cashiers or consumers now all often interact with a computer and other electronic devices (Daly, 1996). For bankers and retailers, less human interaction means lower operational cost but it does not mean that all the human operators will be replaced. The tellers' traditional work has changed from counting paper money, dealing with cash withdrawal and deposit and so forth to develop new business, building customer relationship, help customer to establish their financial planning or purchasing planning. For those individuals who are able to operate the new machines and do not have to rely on bank staff for the transaction, they surely will enjoy the speed and the full control over their accounts. However, for those requiring lots of assistance, say those with low literacy skills, will find operation on a machine very difficult. And for those who have only limited human interactions, such as those elderly living alone, will find their social network constricted further.

Conclusion

As a significant part of the new technology directly affecting our living style, credit cards no doubt have brought about a lot of advantages in making many people's lives, if not every one's, life easier. However, like all new technology, it is an evil to those who do not have knowledge and to those who misuse it. The present paper has argued that credit cards, like what they have been in the US, inevitably swept through almost all social classes and all ages in Hong Kong, bringing with them both the goods and the bads in the process of adoption in different dimensions - in money spending, in banking and in retail purchases. Although there is not yet much evidence to show that new social problems (e.g. credit card debts, frauds and personal information security) have affected individuals, families and our society to the extend which the US is experiencing, news reports in Hong Kong have been indicative of the same trend. In view of this, social welfare professionals are encouraged to equip themselves with skills in credit counselling, family budgeting, and financial management, so that they are more ready to assist the increasing number of clients in such problems, as well as to provide preventive programmes.

THE INFLUENCE OF TECHNOLOGY ON FAMILIES

6th International Counseling Conference - Counseling in the 21st Century

Beijing, China, May 28-30, 1997

Jon Carlson, Psy.D., Ed.D.

Professor, Governors State University, University Park, Illinois, USA

INTRODUCTION

Technological changes have been having an impact upon today's families. Some of the new core technologies are genetic engineering, advanced biochemistry, digital electronics, optical data storage, advanced computers, artificial intelligence, lasers, fiber optics, advanced satellites, and superconductors. They spawn products such as electronic notepads, multimedia computers, digital imaging, multisensory mobile robotics, videoconferencing, and digital cellular phones. According to Burris (1993) in his book Technotrends, the new technology creates new rules for living such as:

(1) if it works, it's obsolete;

(2) past success is your worst enemy;

(3) learn to fail fast:

(4) make rapid change your best friend;

(5) think ten years out and plan back to the present;

(6) time is the currency of the future;

(7) upgrade technology and upgrade people;

(8) find out what the other guy is doing and do something else; and

(9) take your biggest problem and skip it.

The rules of living are being transformed by technology. One observer referred to this generation as the first one to have been raised by TVs and other appliances. According to psychologist Mary Pipher (1997), media has become more of an influence than parents on children (p. 27). What is the impact of this technological change? Is it positive, negative, both? What is being done? What can counselors do? These are the questions that have been posed to counseling scholars from Japan, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Singapore, and China. Nowhere are the technological trends more far-reaching that Asia (Naisbett, 1996).

POSITIVE IMPACTS OF TECHNOLOGY ON FAMILIES

Technology is helping to make us a truly world community, as evidenced by this panel. None of us have ever met in person, but through the use of mail, e-mail, faxes, and phones we have been able to collaborate on this plenary symposium. The technology allows us to share the world and its happenings in an almost instantaneous fashion. There are over 700 million television sets in the world. Viewers are not only consumers of news and ideas, but also commercial goods. We have clear communication on a variety of topics and can harness our collective energies to solve large-scale problems. The technology also provides us with more leisure time, as much of the chores of the last century are now non-existent due to technological advances.

NEGATIVE IMPACTS OF TECHNOLOGY ON FAMILIES

Despite these apparent positive advantages, there seem to be many negatives. Where is all this change headed? What or who are the casualties? The pace of life has been speeded up beyond recognition. No one sleeps any more. There are just too many options. People are so interested in being a part of the technological and corresponding knowledge explosion that they are living in the abstract world of television, e-mail, internet chat rooms, and even cybersex. We are minimizing our direct face-to-face contacts with people and living in a technological brave new world. Small and enduring communities with a limited cast of significant others are being replaced by a vast and ever-expanded array of relationships. Psychologist Ken Gergen (1991) warns us, "the fully saturated self becomes no self at all" (p. 7). Time has speeded up with advances in technology. There is less and less float or turnaround time in transactions. Information is transmitted almost simultaneously with the events. Bank transactions now take place immediately with credit cards, etc.

How does all this speed and technological improvement affect us. Neil Postman in his book, The Disappearance of Childhood (1982), shows how the rapid development has affected children. His contention is that we do not have children any more. We have made everyone into adults. Everyone wears the same clothes, eats the same food, watches the same videos. The physiology is even changing, as the age of menarche drops by one year every ten years. The technological change has impacted our level of human growth and development. I guess nothing is permanent any more.

Due to the rapid technological changes, many jobs are being replaced as robotics, computers, and other advanced technology are making many jobs obsolete. At the beginning of this century, the leading job classification was that of farmer, and now it is less than 3% in the world.

Economic change and technological development, like wars or sporting tournaments, are not beneficial to all. People who are technologically literate become richer, and those who are not become further behind. The gap between the haves and have nots is widening.

ROLE OF THE COUNSELOR IN DEALING WITH FAMILIES THAT HAVE BEEN HARMED BY TECHNOLOGY

Counselors can be more helpful in assisting with decision-making, as there is more information available. There will be a multitude of opportunities for psychological education via the Internet and other media outlets. Unfortunately people become to rely less on themselves and more and more on machines. They challenge themselves less mentally and actually forget how to think. Recent research also states that Americans are being affected physically as well. Recent research states that Americans are becoming more overweight than at any other time in history. It appears as though labor-saving devices such as garage door openers, remote TV controls, and other technological devices are at fault. How else are we being impacted?

Families need to step back from their frenzied schedules and snap out of the media-induced trance of the consumer culture. Most families do not realize just what is happening to them. The metaphor for this is the old story of how the frog immediately jumps out of boiling water, but winds up poaching if you heat up the water slowly enough. Are we all being poached by technology? Pipher (1997) believes that we need to learn the word enough. She says that you are not the center of the universe. Your every need does not need to be gratified immediately. It's very important to learn to delay gratification. Sometimes the best thing you can do with suffering is to endure it. This is in direct opposition to the media that is telling us and our children "don't think, act on impulses."

Counselors have focused exclusively on the internal aspects of families and have ignored the larger culture. Counselors have been looking for pathology within the families. When problems have been occurring, we've blamed the individuals and the families and not considered the impact of the larger system. We've actually alienated people from their families.

Counselors need to treat people's schedules to help them become less burdened, to teach them how to live lives based upon their values, to develop a family mission statement and to live by it. If we don't do this, we will end up as Mary Pipher (1997) states: "It's becoming clearer and clearer to me that if families just let the culture happen to them, they end up fat, addicted, broke, with a houseful of junk and no time" (p. 32). I guess nothing fails like success.

CONCLUSION

The future will require us to anticipate, communicate, be flexible, integrate, and orchestrate. It will be important to anticipate future change, maintain high levels of communication, remain flexible, integrate as much as possible, and be creative as you orchestrate the symphony of your future and present life.

In Asia, the family unit has long been the foundation of society. The family system, instead of the government, provides social, economic, and emotional support to the individual as well as the family itself. Self-reliance and personal responsibility are nurtured within the family, but with increased urbanization and industrialization of Asia, the family unit is in danger of breaking down. If the family is weakened, what will happen to the social structure? As Asia is managing the transition to modernization, can the family be preserved in the process?

REFERENCES

Burris, D. (1993). Technotrends: 24 technologies that will revolutionize our lives. New York: Harper Business.

Gergen, K.J. (1991). The saturated self: The dilemmas of identity in contemporary life. New York: Basic Books.

Naisbitt, J. (1996). Megatrends Asia: Eight Asian megatrends that are reshaping our world. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Pipher, M. (1997). The family unplugged. Family Therapy Networker, January/February.

Postman, N. (1982). The disappearance of childhood. New York: Delacorte.

Career Development and Counseling Strategies
In An Age of Technology

Xiaolu Hu, Ph.D
San Jose State University.
Sarah Toman, Ph.D.
Cleveland State University

In the transition from the 20th to the 21st century, we march forth during an upheaval in technological advancement. The technology revolution not only brings new channels of global communication, but also brings unprecedented changes which impact America's workforce. The technology revolution creates a new critical condition for career development of the masses as well as career development professionals. This new challenge requires Americans (as well as persons nationwide) to develop a new vision and strategies essential to managing successful career development and career satisfaction. Career professionals are in the frontier in this new age. This paper highlights the impact of high technology and knowledge-based economies to career development and the new concept and strategies need to develop.

Challenging Times for Career Development

The current state of technology has created an integrated global economy relying more and more on instantaneous introduction of faster communication and the creation of new careers, which never existed before. Technology is being integrated into almost all phases of the workplace including jobs, which were never thought to involve technology before. Some have even coined the current condition "the digital economy" because the use of rapidly evolving telecommunication technology.

The new technology brings people from all over the world together to live in a "global village". The major characteristic of the knowledge-based global economy is rapid growth of human knowledge and access to knowledge. However, some have felt that the current

---

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Xiaolu Hu, College of Education, San Jose State University, San Jose, CA 95192-0073, or Sarah Toman, College of Education, Cleveland State University, Cleveland, OH 44115.

condition may be separating people into two distinct categories – those who are able to catch the wave and those who resist new technology and may fall be the wayside. For example, CNN has always been considered as "skewed to a more wealthy, older audience" (Haar, 1996). When they expanding its reach to a younger audience, they hired a 12-person staff to write news headlines that fit the web site at cnn.com. They reverts itself for interactivity (Haar, 1996). However, while computers barely reached the home market just five years ago, current surveys now claim that access to the Internet has reached 25% of the population.

The technology revolution brings dramatic change in the workplace. The traditional view of job security and job satisfaction may no longer exist in the contemporary workplace. Computers replace more and more human labor. The Information Superhighway links business to other businesses and the consumer to provide better service with less need for human interaction. Companies frequently go through reorganization, downsizing, and mergers as well as develop new avenues of communication to rapidly produce new products and reflect the technological advancement.

Lifespans of companies have become shorter almost overnight. Where in the past, one might expect to work for the same company for a lifetime, the technological revolution has resulted in a more "perfect market", enhancing competition and forcing companies to adapt or go out of business. All of these have resulted in what some have termed "permanent whitewater" – a continual churning with or without any real movement. One of the outcomes of this turmoil has been the "new employment contract," which theoretically allows for maximum organizational productivity through the creation of a career self-directed workforce.

In the technology age, a highly educated workforce is critical social condition. Skilled workers and highly educated professionals are always in demand. Although they may need to upgrade their knowledge constantly, transferable learning skills empower them to obtain the new technology and knowledge and stand at the crest of the technology wave. Continuing education and life-long learning is an important strategy for everyone to be successful. In contrast, people with less education have less job opportunity.

New technology changes career information delivering systems. Employment listings that used to be the exclusive domain of newspapers, trade magazines and other print publications now lead to towards the information superhighway. Employment listing are routinely posted on the World Wide Web, via college and commercial job boards and company Web sites. Resumes that were once sent through the mail (now a.k.a. "snail mail") are now are sent by facsimile and E-mail providing instantaneous transmittal. Even resume review may be performed electronically bypassing initial review by human hands. The trend of online methods has made a significant impact on the world of recruiting and job seeking. More and more people get jobs through company Internet postings. As companies get bombarded with job applicants trying to get in the door of the lucrative high-tech industry, recruiters are looking for new ways to sift through the job seekers more quickly and inexpensively. For example, computer maker Silicon Graphics Inc. in Silicon Valley hires about 20 percent of its employees off the Internet. The company's Web page (http://www.sigi.com) lists some 900 openings. The San Jose Mercury (March 5, 1997) states that nationwide, more than 600,000 job openings are posted on the Internet, up from 15,000 two years ago. Today, online recruiting becomes the prevalent method of finding quality job candidates. The Internet is no longer just for the tech professionals. Busy phone lines notwithstanding, the general public has easy access. Companies can post job positions on Internet and people can forward their resumes in response. Many magazines and mass media have developed special columns focusing on career development.

Creating a New Vision About Career Development

The rapid development of technology has touched almost every aspect of life. Career development is no exception. Working in contemporary society, to develop a new vision for career development is essential in achieving career satisfaction and success. The following are a few examples of new ideas, which need to be embraced.

1. **Career development is a complex, dynamic and multidimensional process.**

Career development is no longer a linear course. Traditional career development theories have viewed career development as a rather linear, predictable procedure.

Today's labor market and workplace is highly dynamic yet clouded with uncertainty. Employability is a concern for everyone. People now work in a world where there is a fear or at least a realization that the company they work for today may not be in existence tomorrow. Witness the Apple or IBM of yesterday compared to the Apple or IBM of tomorrow. Even Ma Bell has been split up with new mergers and ventures appearing at increasing rates. People go through constant job changes and many have different jobs at same time. People also may change careers several times in a life span. Career development is comply with not only finding and getting a job, and achieving job satisfaction, but also maintaining employability, continued learning, self-fulfillment, and advancement of one's self with new social and technical skills.

2. **New knowledge and upgrade skills provide job security.**

Security of job and life is no longer just from having a job, but from having knowledge and skills which are transferable to other jobs. Traditionally if one has a job and performs well at that job, the company would reward the employee with job security. However, since business corporations and companies have to go through constant changes themselves, those employees who have the most updated skills and advanced knowledge are the most desired labor force in the job market. Therefore, continuous learning and life span education are keys for employability, career satisfaction, and to ensure adaptability to rapidly changing conditions.

3. **Career skill is essential for everyone to survive in a changing world.**

Because people constantly change jobs, a futures perspective must be integrated into career development. Everyone has to learn new job search skills, obtain the knowledge of job market, and be familiar with current and emerging resources of career information. Utilization of new technologies is needed and critical for effective job searches. Since Internet is the premier information technology for the 21st Century, we all need to be familiar with online searching, job postings, and ways of preparing the electronic resume.

Examples of New Technologies for Career Counselors

New technologies available to assist career counselors in providing services to career concerned individuals are developing faster and faster. The success of a career counselor will be the counselor's ability to assimilate these new changes.

1. Therapeutic Usage of Video

Televisions and Videocassette Records are readily accessible to all career professionals. In 1992, the report of the "Video Usage in Career Development Project" was made available through the Educational Resources Information Center (Feller, 1992). This report contains the title, publisher, publication date, cost, length, recommended audience, and evaluation of 98 videotapes relevant to the career development field. Some of the videos evaluated highest include *Are You Ready* (J.C. Penney Company, Inc.); *Negotiating Competitive Salaries and Benefits* (Administrative Management Society), *Planning A Successful Job Hunt* (Administrative Management Society), *Got a Job Interview, Learn the Skills* (Sunburst Communications), From *High School to Brilliant Careers: Jobs for the Future Program* (Guidance Associates). A complete address list is included in the report, along with evaluations, rating questionnaires and the names of evaluators.

There are many advantages to using videotapes during the career counseling process. Videotapes can be a very efficient use of time when groups of clients can view them at the same time. For both the client and counselor, videotapes provide a great deal of flexibility in scheduling, including viewing tapes at home after business hours. Tapes can also provide a professional presentation of the material. An advantage for the client can be a realization that they are not alone, others (often depicted as clients on the tapes) may have similar career dilemmas. The one main disadvantage, lack of counselor contact, can be remedied if client and counselor view the tape together.

2. Utilization of Computers

Career counselors have access to a vast array of computer related tools. Most counselors are familiar with computer-assisted career guidance systems such as SIGI (System of Interactive Guidance and Information, 1985) and DISCOVER (1984), but with

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

the rise of popularity in home computers, career guidance software is now available through local bookstores. One such career guidance and assessment software package which includes Myers-Briggs (Myers & McCaully, 1985) and Holland (1973) typologies is *If You Knew Who You Were, You Could Be Who You Are* (Sturman, 1994).

Career counselors now have the technology to easily access up to date career counseling resources online. Of particular value to the counselor are the various job market sites. These postings may be job specific, such as the Online Listings with the Chronicle of Higher Education (http://chronicle.merit.edu) to more general postings, such as the American Job Bank (http://www.ajb.dni.us/) and government listings. It has also become possible to offer career counseling resources and guidance to anyone in the world via web sites or E-mail.

3. Videoconferencing and Distance Learning for Counseling

A third category of technology available to career counseling is videocounseling or distance learning. This technology makes it possible to provide counseling to a career client anywhere in the world. Videoconference equipment allows the counselor to sit in their own office at a television screen and do live counseling with a client they can see and who sees them. The connection between counselor and client is made over a telephone line.

One of the obvious advantages of videocounseling is the ability to provide services to a larger geographical area. Another advantage is that videocounseling closely simulates actually being in the room with the client. Documents, such as interest inventory results can be displayed on the video screen for discussion. Equipment is now readily available with inexpensive camcorders, computer equipment, and ISDN telephone service allowing two way audio/video services, and upcoming PCS services may substantially increase the popularity of videophoen functions.

In conclusion, by our willingness to use technology with our clients, we can model the skills and resources our clients will need in the job market. Career development theories and interventions have stood the test of time and now we have the opportunity to adapt those practices to our times.

Computer-Based Career Interventions

Paper presented at the 6th International Counseling Conference, May 28 - June 2, 1997, Beijing, China

Wei-Cheng Mau, Ph.D.
Wichita State University
Administration, Counseling, Educational and School Psychology
Wichita, KS 67260-0123, U.S.A
(316) 978-3326 (O); (316) 978-3102 (H)
mau@wsuhub.uc.twsu.edu

The use of computer technology for career counseling has become a standardized practice among counseling professionals since its first introduction to the field. The possible utilities and limitations of computer-assisted career guidance systems (CACG) have been widely discussed (e.g., Harris-Bolsbey, 1984; Gati, 1995; Katz, 1993, Sampson, 1983). The cost analyses and the evaluation of CACG have also been documented (e.g., Sampson, Reardon, Humphreys, Peterson, Evans, & Domkowski, 1990). However, the effectiveness of CACG has not been systematically investigated as has other traditional counseling approaches. The majority of CACG studies were conducted during 70s and 80s. Due to the vast and rapid change of the delivery system and computer softwares, continued research and evaluation of the effectiveness of CACG is needed. The purpose of this study is to compare and evaluate relative effectiveness of different approaches to computer-based career interventions.

CACG systems provide many attractive features for experimental research on career decision-making, largely due to its standardization of treatment procedure and replicability of results (Jepsen, 1990). CACG systems also provide a linkage between theory and practice (Walsh & Savickas, 1996). Despite the potential of CACG, these systems have not received enough attention in the field of counseling psychology (Gati, 1996).

Although there are more than a dozen popular systems, studies have been unevenly focused on a few programs such as DISCOVER and SIGI. Most of the CACG studies concentrated on likability of these systems and its short-term effect. Very few studies focused on the effect of the systems on individuals' vocational identity or career development over an extended period of time. Moreover, CACG programs are complex systems, effects on users are likely the product of complex interaction, therefore, isolate components of a large system, and investigate the interactions with other system components is important (Jepsen, 1990).

Most of the CACG systems are designed to assist an individual in learnining about themselves (career assessment approach), or learning about the world of work (career exploration approach). Very few systems are designed to teach individuals about how to process career information. If the the ultimate goal of career intervention is to help individuals become independent and responsible career problem-solvers and decision-makers, then the teaching information processing skills and decision-making strategies must be developed (Sampson, Peterson, & Reardon, 1989).

Career decision-making is a complex process, by which individuals organize information about themselves and the world of work, deliberate among alternatives about actions, and make a public commitment to action (Jepsen, 1984). It has been strongly suggested that individuals usually lack cognitive capacity to process information about self and occupation (Gati, 1997; Glass & Holyoak, 1986; Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). Given the complexity of the decision-making process, and the limitations of human cognition, teaching individuals to understand the decision process and appropriate career decision-making strategies become critically important.

Studies (Egner & Jackson, 1978; Jepsen, Dustin, & Miars, 1982; Krumboltz, Scherba, Hamel, & Mitchell, 1982; Rubinton, 1980) have shown the effectiveness of direct teaching about decision-making strategies. Very few studies have investigated the effectiveness of teaching career-decision making via computers. Johnson (1985) used microcomputers to teach steps in the decision making process and help students learn how to use personal interest, values, and abilities to evaluate career options. He found that the students in the computer-assisted group perceived the career exploration to be more enjoyable and helpful than did students in the counselor-assisted group. Mau and Jepsen (1992) compared two theory-based decision-making models, Subjective Expected Utility and Sequential Elimination (described in the method section), using microcomputers. Results indicate a differential impact of the strategies on choice anxiety, choice certainty, and complexity of reasons for choosing a college major. Based on these findings and suggestions from Gati (1986), it may be hypothesized that computer programs that integrate two strategies may have a greater impact on individual's career decision-making tasks.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of a computer program combining Expected Utilities and Elimination by Aspects decision strategies, on vocational identity and career exploratory behaviors. The relative effectiveness of different CACG approaches were also examined. Specifically, the following questions were addressed in this study:

A. Does teaching career decision-making strategies (CDM) result in a greater vocational identity and career exploratory behaviors?
B. How does CDM approach compare with career interest assessment approach (SDS), information approach (CHOICES), and a combination approach (SDS + CDM)? Which approach has greater long-term effects?
C. How are the CACG programs received by students?

Vocational identity is defined as the possession of a clear and stable picture of one's goals, interests, and talents (Holland, Johnston, & Asama, 1993). Vocational identity has been found to associate with Job satisfaction, vocational commitment, vocational attitude, positive career belief, desirable problem solving attitude, and rational decision-making style. The most popular use of this scale has been its use as a pre-/post criterion for evaluating career intervention (Holland et al., 1993).

Career exploratory behavior has been defined as those activities in which individuals seek to assess themselves and acquire information from the environment to assist with decision-making (Jordaan, 1963). Career exploratory behaviors have been shown to be predictive of vocational commitment (Blustein, 1989), vocational maturity (Yongue, Todd, & Burton, 1981), congruent occupational preference (Grotevant, Cooper, & Kramer, 1986), and confidence in one's vocational choice (Jepsen, 1975).

Methods

Sample

The sample is consisted of 108 (M = 26, F = 82) undergraduate students enrolled in human growth and development classes at a midwestern state university. Students (approximately 140) enrolled in these classes were primarily juniors and seniors. Of the 140 students, 121 agreed to participate. Of the 121 volunteers, 108 completed the study. Students who completed the study were given extra course credits. The mean age was 25.9 (SD = 6.8), ranging from 18 to 48. The majority of participants (over 90%) were Caucasians.

CACG Programs

Three types of CACGs were examined. Program descriptions are briefly stated as followings:

Career Decision-Making (CDM). CDM is a computer-assisted instruction program that teaches theory-based career decision-making strategies. The computer instruction program was created by the author based on the decision-making models Sequential Elimination and the Subjective Expected Utility as described by Gati (1986) and Katz (1966). The Elimination strategy contains five sections : (a) Generating a list of choice possibilities; (b) Identifying a list of aspects; (c) Clarifying aspects; (d) Eliminating possibilities by aspects; and (e) Ordering the surviving alternatives. The Maximizing strategy contains 4 sections: (a) Identifying and comparing values, (b) Estimating expectancies, (c) Computing expected values, and (d) Evaluating the alternatives. For each section, instructions include learning objectives, activity instructions, and simulation exercises, i.e., Vocational Card Sort (Jones, 1980). A list of occupations and information resources, e.g., career placement services, is included in the computer program along with suggestions on how to search for additional, off-line information. Lichtenberg, Shaffer, and Arachtingi (1993) have also compared Subjective Expected Utility and Sequential Elimination decision models using a work sheet approach. Their study suggested that the Expected Utility model yielded significantly higher payoff.

Self-Directed Search - Computer Version (SDS-CV; PAR, 1987). As both a vocational assessment and an intervention design, the paper-pencil version of SDS has been shown to increase self-understanding, and the number of vocational options considered (Holland, Power, & Fritzsche, 1994). The creation of a computer version is intended to "extend the assessment and treatment where possible in ways compatible with Holland's most recent theory" (Reardon, 1987; p. 63). The SDS-CV items are identical with those of the paper-and pencil version. Using summary scale scores, Reardon and Loughead (1988) compared SDS and SDS-CV indicating a significant correlation. The SDS-CV provides an interpretive report including an overview of the six Holland types. The report also includes suggestions on how to use the SDS results in career and educational planning, and a list of reference materials. SDS-CV has been used to assist "those clients indicating a lack of adequate self-knowledge or schema with which relates to personal characteristics to occupations" (Reardon, Lenz, & Strausberger, 1996; p. 213).

Heuristic Occupational Information and Career Exploration System (CHOICES, Careerware, 1996). CHOICES has a strong emphasis on information access and retrieval. There are five modules in the Choices program: (a) Guided Access, (b) Tutorial, (c) Planner, (d) Assessment, and (e) Quick Access. In this study only the Guided Access module was used to represent the information approach of the CACG interventions. The Guided Access module contains a search function that allow individuals to explore occupations based on their selected criteria such as interest, aptitude, temperaments, etc. This module also allows individuals to compare two or three occupations, and search related occupations. Studies have indicated that CHOICES was well received (e.g., Reardon, Bonnell, & Huddleston, 1982), and increased career decision making commitment of college students (e.g., Pinder & Fitzgerald, 1984).

Procedure

Students who participated in this study were randomly assigned to one of six groups: (1) CDM, (2) SDS, (3) Choices, (4) SDS + CDM, (5) wait-listed control, and (6) Holdout group. A total of 25 two-hour sessions were scheduled over a two week period. Due to limited availability of computers and the software programs, seven participants were assigned to a different group because none of the originally assigned group sessions fit their schedule. Consequently, each session varied with a number of students participating. In each session, a graduate research assistant was available for introducing the computer system and answering questions.

Students who participated in any of the first four CACG groups completed the My Vocational Situation questionnaire (MVS) one week before they received the treatment, and were administered the MVS and a computer program evaluation questionnaire immediately after the treatment. A career exploratory behavior checklist and MVS were administered to the treatment group six months after they received the treatment. Students in the wait-listed control group completed MVS twice in the same one-week period before they received the treatment. Students in the hold-out group were administered MVS and the career exploratory behaviors checklist during the follow-up period. Students in the hold-out group received no treatment during the research study period.

Instrument

Vocational Identity. My Vocational Situation (Holland, Daiger, & Power, 1980) measured vocational identity, the need for information, and perceived barriers to career decision-making. The vocational identity scale, consisted of 18 items, is defined as " the possession of a clear and stable picture of one's goal, interests, personality, and talents" (p.1., Holland, et al., 1980). The score reliability (KR 20) is .89 for 291 college males, and .88 for college females. MVS has been gaining empirical support as a valid diagnostic tool (Holland, et al., 1993; Lucas, Gysbers, Buescher, & Heppner, 1988).

Career Exploratory Behaviors. A checklist including 20 possible sources of information was developed by the author. Participants were asked to indicate how often they had sought each information since they received CACG. Both the number of sources and the total frequencies of information sought were assessed.

Satisfaction Ratings. Students' satisfaction with the program was measured based on a questionnaire composed of 10 self-descriptive statements, for example, "Using this program helped me to make the educational/vocational decisions." Items were derived from several studies, including Zener and Schnuelle (1972), Ryan and Drummond (1981), and Mau and Jepsen (1992). Students rated each of the 10 statements using a 5-point Likert scale (from 1, strongly disagree, to 5, strongly agree). For the first eight statements, a high rating (3 and above) indicated a positive reaction to the program utilized; for the last two statements, a high rating indicated a negative reaction toward the program. Ratings for the last two items were reversed when the total satisfaction ratings were computered. The alpha coefficient estimated for this sample was .76.

Results

Pre-test and posttest differences in vocational identity among CACG and wait-list control groups were examined using a 5 (group) by 2 (sex) analyses of variance (ANOVA). Pre-test and follow-up test differences in vocational identity and career exploratory behaviors among CACG and Hold-out groups were also examined using a 5 x 2 ANOVA. Perceived satisfaction with CACG programs (i.e., CDM, SDS-CV, and Choices) was examined using one-way ANOVA.

Table 1 provides means and standard deviations of vocational identity scores by groups and gender. Results of ANOVA indicate a significant short-term gain in vocational identity for groups, *F*(4, 87) = 2.69, *p* <. 037. There were no significant gender differences or group by gender interaction. Post hoc analysis indicated that students who participated in the CDM group (*M* = 2.32) had a significant short-term gain on vocational identity than students who received no treatment (*M* = 0.28). Results of ANOVA also indicate a significant long-term gain in vocational identity for groups, *F*(4, 69) = 3.29, *p* <. 017. Post hoc analysis showed that students in CDM (*M* = 2.76), or Choices group (*M* = 3.71) had a significant long-term gain than the hold-out group (*M* = 0.90).

Table 2 provides means and standard deviations of career exploratory behaviors by group and gender. Results of ANOVA indicate a significant group by sex interaction for source of information explored, *F*(4, 69) = 3.03, *p* <. 024, and in the total frequencies of information sought , *F*(4, 87) = 3.49, *p* <. 013. Post hoc analyses showed that male participants in the CDM group (*M* = 11.2) sought significantly more sources of information than male participants in the hold-out group (*M* = 5.0).

ANOVA showed a significant difference in satisfaction ratings among different CACG program, *F*(2, 55) = 4.42, *p* < . 017. On the average, students who used the SD-CV program (*M* = 43.1, *SD* = 5.1) reported greater satisfaction than those who used CDM (*M* = 36.0, *SD* = 7.9) or CHOICES (*M* = 36.9, *SD* = 8.4) program. No significant gender difference were found.

Discussion

This study investigated the effectiveness of a theory-based CACG program, integrating Sequential Elimination and Expected Utility strategies. Results suggested that it is not only possible to integrate two decision making strategies, but also indicated that the integrated approach is effective in increasing students' vocational identity. Teaching career decision-making strategies using micro-computer not only resulted in a short-term gains in students' vocational identity, this effect seems to have a long lasting impact. The information approach (Choices) also had a significant long-term impact on students' vocational identity, but fell short of significant short-term effect. Although SDS-CV did not significantly raise students' vocational identity scores, students appeared to favor the use of SDS-CV over CDM and Choices.

Unexpectedly, the combined approach (SDS+CDM) did not significantly increase students' vocational identity. Several possible explanations are contemplated. The arrangement to do both computer programs were difficult to make, consequently, fewer students showed up for the experiment. The considerably smaller sample size for the combined approach may have resulted in lacking statistical power for a significant effect. It is also possible that ceiling effect may be a factor for this non-significant finding. University career counseling clients typically have a average vocational identity score of 8 (Reardon, 1997; personal communication), the sample from this study consisted of primarily junior and senior university students who were likely to have their career goals well thought out and formulated.

Consistent with other studies (Johnson, 1985; Miller, Karriker, & Springer, 1986), the present study did not show gender effects of these treatment programs on vocational identity. However, gender and treatment interaction was found for the measure of vocational exploratory behavior. Male students in the CDM group sought significantly more sources of information than male participants in the hold-out group. The fact that the CDM program does not contain occupational information, and its provision of strategy to obtain off-line information, seemed to have motivated male students than female students to seek information from diverse sources. However, due to a relatively small male sample size in each group, one should interpret the findings with reservation and make tentative conclusions.

Vocational identity and vocational exploratory behavior are generally considered two important predictors for a variety of career behaviors and major career intervention goals. Given the complexity of decision-making process, and the limitations of human information processing, computer-assisted career intervention programs can be used to break down the information into "bits" and "pieces," therefore, reduce the "information overload." Teaching career decision-making can consume a great deal of a counselor's time. The use of CACG for teaching career decision-making not only enhances counselors productivity, but also becomes a logical solution for often criticized compensatory decision model (Gati, 1997; Glass & Holyoak, 1986; Tversky, 1975).

The findings of this study may provide counseling practitioners with evaluative information for making purchasing decisions. Although students were more satisfied with the SDS program, both CDM and Choices programs were rated positively. More than 50% of students from either program indicated that they will suggest their friends to use the program. However, counselors should avoid making decisions based on single factor. Cost-effect analysis (e.g., Sampson, et al., 1990) would provide useful information to the practitioners.

References

(incomplete list)

Careerware (1996). CHOICES [computer program]. Ottawa, Ontario: Author.

Carson, A.D., & Mowsesian, R. (1993). Moderators of the prediction of job satisfaction from congruence: A test of Holland's theory. Journal of Careeer Assessment, 2, 105-196.

Egner, J. R., & Jackson, D. J. (1978). Effectiveness of a counseling intervention program for teaching career decision-making skills. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 25, 45-52.

Gati, I. (1986). Making career decisions--A sequential elimination approach. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 33, 408-417.

Gati, I. (1995). Computer-assisted career counseling: Dilemas, problems and possible solutions. Journal of Counseling and Development, 73, 51-56.

Gati, I. (1996). Computer-assisted career counseling: Challenges and prospects. In M.L. Savickas, & W.B. Walsh (Eds.), Handbook of career counseling theory and practice. Palo Alto, CA: Davies-Black Publishing.

Holland, J., Power, A.B., & Fritzsche, B.A. (1994). The self-Directed Search: Professional User's Guide, Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resource.

Holland, J.L., Johnston, J.A., & Asama, N.F. (1993). The Vocational Identity Scale: A diagnostic and treatment tool. Journal of Career Assessment, 1, 1-12.

Jepsen, D.A. (1990). A useful but limited consumer's guide, Journal of Career Development, 17, 129-132.

Johnson, R.G. (1985). Microcomputer-assisted career exploration. The Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 33, 296-304.

Jordaan, J.P. (1963). Exploratory behavior: The formation of self and occupational concepts. In D.E. Super (Eds.), Career Development: Self-concept theory (pp. 42-78). New York: College Entrance Examination Board.

Katz, M. R. (1966). A model of guidance for career decision making. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 15, 2-10.

Krumboltz, J. D., Scherba, D. S., Hamel, D. A., & Mitchell, L. K. (1982). Effect of training in rational decision making on the quality of simulated career decisions. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 29, 618-625.

Lichtenberg, J.W., Shaffer, M, & Arachtingi, B.M. (1993). Expected utility and sequential elimination models of career decision making. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 42, 237-252.

Lucas, E.B., Gysbers, N.C., Buescher, K.L., & Heppner, P.P. (1988). My Vocational Situation: Normative, psychometric, and comparative data, Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, 20, 162-170.

Mau, W.C., & Jepsen, D.A. (1992). Effects of computer-assisted instruction in using formal decision-making strategies to choose a college major. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 39, 185-192.

Miller, M.J., Karriker, C.S., & Springer, T.P. (1986). A comparison of two approaches to counselor-free career xploration. Journal of Employment Counseling, 23, 339-347.

PAR (1987). Self-Directed Search: Computer version [computer program]. Odessa, FL: Author.

Pinder F.A., & Fitzgerald, P.W. (1984). The effectiveness of a computer guidance system in promoting career decision making. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 24, 123-131.

Reardon, R.C. (1987). Development of the computer version of the Self-Directed Search, Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, 20, 62-67.

Reardon, R.C., & Loughead, T. (1988). A comparison of paper-and pencil, and computer version of the Self-Directed Search. Journal of Counseling and Development, 67, 249-252.

Reardon, R.C., Bonnel, R.O., & Huddleston, M.R. (1982). Self-directed career Exploration: A comparison of CHOICES and the Self-Directed Search. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 20, 22-20.

Rubinton, N. (1980). Instruction in career decision making and decision-making styles. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 27, 581-588.

Sampson, J.P., Jr., Peterson, G.W., & Reardon, R.C. (1989). Counselor intervention strategies for computer-assisted career guidance: An information-processing approach. Journal of Career Development, 16, 139-154.

Sampson, J.P., Jr., Reardon, R.C., Humphreys, J.K., Peterson, G.W., Evans, M.A., & Domkowski, D. (1990). A differential feature-cost analysis of nine computer-assisted career guidance system. Journal of Career Development, 17, 81-112.

Tversky, A. (1975). A critique of expected utility theory: Descriptive and normative considerations. Erkenntis, 9, 163-173.

Walsh, W.B., & Savickas, M.L. (1996). Integrating career theory and practice. In M.L. Savickas, & W.B. Walsh (Eds.), Handbook of career counseling theory and practice. Palo Alto, CA: Davies-Black Publishing.

Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations of Vocational Identity By Treatment Groups and Gender

	Pretest	Posttest	Follow-up
CDM (n = 23)			
M	13.1	15.5	16.4
SD	2.8	2.4	1.5
SDS (n = 14)			
M	13.6	14.1	15.0
SD	3.6	4.0	3.2
CHOICES (n = 21)			
M	11.0	12.3	14.8
SD	4.4	4.6	3.2
SDS+CDM (n = 13)			
M	12.9	14.9	15.0
SD	3.8	3.5	3.1
Wait-Listed Control (n = 16)			
M	13.3	13.6	--
SD	3.7	3.9	--
Hold-Out Group (n = 21)			
M	14.7	--	15.4
SD	2.6		2.1
Males (n = 26)			
M	13.7	14.1	15.3
SD	3.8	4.0	3.1
Females (n = 82)			
M	12.8	14.8	15.6
SD	3.7	3.5	2.7

Note. Students in the Hold-out group only participated in the follow-up study. Students in the wait-listed control group used either the CDM or CHOICES program after the posttest was administered. Average scores and standard deviations for VI is 14.2/3.4. The higher the VI score the greater the career certainty.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations of Exploratory Behaviors By Treatment Groups and Gender

Treatment Groups	Number of Sources Explored Males	 Females	Frequency of Exploration Males	 Females
CDM				
M	11.2	6.2	59.2	19.6
SD	3.1	2.6	34.4	18.5
SDS				
M	6.0	6.0	59.5	19.4
SD	2.8	3.3	55.9	14.4
CHOICES				
M	5.5	7.6	11.5	27.7
SD	4.5	3.1	10.8	30.5
SDS+CDM				
M	9.3	8.1	38.3	25.9
SD	3.1	2.7	24.7	16.5
Hold-Out Group				
M	5.0	6.1	19.8	17.4
SD	2.8	2.4	21.2	10.6

Theoretical Perspectives on the Importance of the Therapeutic Alliance and Their Implications for the Use of Technology

Peggy H. Smith, Ph.D.

Peggy H. Smith is an Associate Professor in the Department of Counseling, College of Health and Human Services, San Francisco State University, San Francisco, California. She is also a licensed psychologist and the current President of the Women's Caucus, California Association of Counseling and Development. She previously worked in Counseling and Psychological Services at SFSU. She has given numerous workshops and presentations on behavioral self management, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, and women's issues.

The Western process of providing therapy to individuals, couples, families, and groups has depended primarily upon the presence of a trained therapist since Freud developed his "talking cure" in the late 19th Century. Even before that, any historical perspective makes note of the fact that individuals in a society or culture, although variously seen as participants in magic, religion, philosophy, or medicine, were designated to fulfill the role of "helper/healer." (Wachtel, 1977, p.3; Orlinsky & Howard, 1995, p. 4.) Eastern traditions of healing relied similarly upon the mentor, guru, or priest to guide the seeker toward increased mental, physical, and emotional health.

However, much has been made in recent years of the advances of technology and their implications for the spread of knowledge. Not only has the World Wide Web opened up undreamed of access to job listings, psychological tests, published works, and reference materials, but advance in multi-media material are making it easier to use and bring audio and visual materials into the counseling session. Advances in phone technology have allowed communication between individuals to occur anywhere at any time. The advantages of technology have been targeted in the United States, in the provision of mental health services, by managed health care organizations and by agencies and businesses, all eager to cut down the costs incurred through standard delivery of psychotherapy. If video tapes, or computer programs, can replace an actual person and, once developed, can be reused innumerable times for a minimal cost, then to what extent is the person necessary in the delivery of mental health care? The basic questions in the therapeutic community might be stated at these: Can machines replace therapists? Can therapy occur without a therapist?

This paper attempts to respond to these questions through an examination of some major Western and Eastern theories in the field of psychological therapy. It is the purpose of this paper to review existing writings in the field of psychotherapy to emphasize that, whatever helping may occur through the use of technology, it is the very essence of psychotherapy that a personal relationship occurs between two or more individuals and that it is through this personal relationship that therapeutic change occurs. Therefore, to limit or eliminate this personal relationship in any way through the use of technology will inevitable destroy the essence of therapy.

Most Western theories may be divided into three major "schools" or "Forces": Psychodynamic, as elaborated upon by Object Relations theorists, Margaret Mahler, John Bowlby, and the advocates of Self Psychology; Behavior Modification and Cognitive/Behavior Modification, as defined by B. F. Skinner, Albert Bandura, Michael Mahoney, David Meichenbaum, Aaron Beck, Salvador Minuchin, Jay Haley, and others; and the Humanistic/Phenomenological/Existential Theorists, represented by Carl Rogers, Frederick "Fritz" Perls, Irving Yalom, Rollo May, Abraham Maslow, and Virginia Satir, for example.

Each of these Forces has distinctive views of human nature, the nature and mechanisms of change, the role of the therapist, the goal of therapy, the course of therapy, success in therapy, and each contains different sets of techniques, strategies and interventions based on these concepts. Regardless of the differences in views, values, and opinions expressed by these different Forces and the specific theories in each Force, the most common element amongst the theories is the central importance of the therapist. (Fiedler 1949; Fiedler 1950)

Indeed, as Orlinsky and Howard (1995) state:

> "Thus, the modern psychotherapies may be described generically as involving a *professional service* that provides *personal help* in the sphere of *private life* under the symbolic authority and guidance of *scientific knowledge*...This combination of professional service with personal attachment as contrasting and even contrary social structural elements into a single relationship is a distinctive feature of the modern forms of psychotherapy...(p. 9) Another aspect of the process that follows directly from the therapeutic contract is the start of a person-to-person relationship between the patient and therapist. This *therapeutic bond* may be kept in the background and given only limited recognition or it may become an important focus of treatment, depending mainly on the therapist's treatment model and the patient's personal input. However, whether the bond is overtly emphasized or not, research has show that it is centrally related to the therapeutic outcome." (p.17)

First Force theories have emphasized the necessity of the objective nature of the therapist. The therapist should not interject him/herself into the therapeutic process in a personal way. This would seem to advance the idea that a machine, which in theory could be programmed to do analysis and interpretation, would be the ideal partner for the client from the psychodynamic perspective. But wait! The briefest perusal of the literature from this Force quickly puts this idea to rest.

Sigmund Freud (1964), the "father" of psychoanalysis, said it this way:

> "The labour of overcoming the resistances is the essential achievement of the analytic treatment; the patient has to accomplish it and the physician makes it possible for him to do this by suggestions which are in the nature of an *education*. It has been truly said therefore, that

> psychoanalytic treatment is a kind of *re-education.* (p. 459) The decisive part of the work is carried through by creating - in the relationship to the physician, in "the transference" - new editions of those early conflicts, in which the patient strives to behave as he originally behaved, while one calls upon all the available forces in his soul to bring him to another decision. The transference is thus the battlefield where all the contending forces must meet." (p. 462)

Freud's one time disciple and another of the "Big Three" of First Force theory, Alfred Adler (1979), wrote:

> "Part of the technique of treatment is in any case information on these aspects, and extension of the ability to cooperate. This is the core of Individual Psychology treatment. In the cooperation between physician and patient I have greatly stressed how the patient must be brought closer to the problem, so that he is slowly brought into this path of cooperation until it appears to him as a matter of course. The result is the extended ability to cooperate. This puts him in a better position." (p. 200)

And the last of the original "Big Three", Carl Jung (1933), states:

> "It is only with the help of confession that I am able to throw myself into the arms of humanity freed as last from the burden of moral exile. The goal of treatment by catharsis is full confession...(pp. 35-36) For twist and turn the matter as we may, the relation between physician and patient remains personal within the frame of the impersonal, professional treatment. We cannot by any device bring it about that the treatment is not the outcome of a mutual influence in which the whole being of the patient as well as that of the doctor plays its part. Two primary factors come together in the treatment – that is, two persona, neither of whom is a fixed and determinable magnitude. Their fields of consciousness may be quite clearly defined, but they bring with them beside an indefinitely extended sphere of unconsciousness. The this reason the personalities of the doctor and patient have often more to do with the outcome of the treatment than what the doctor says or thinks...The meeting of two personalities is like the contact of two chemical substances: if there is any reaction, both are transformed. We should expect the doctor to have an influence on the patient in every effective psychic treatment: but this influence can only take place when he too is affected by the patient. You can exert no influence if you are not susceptible to influence." (p. 49)

Sullivan (1954), one of the group of theorists called Neo-Freudian, explains his view of the role of the therapist thus:

> "Since the field of psychiatry has been defined as the study of interpersonal relations, and since it has been alleged that this is a perfectly valid area for the application of scientific method, we have come to the conclusion that the data of psychiatry arise only in participant observation. In other words, the psychiatrist cannot stand off to one side and apply his sense organs, however they may be refined by the use of apparatus, to noticing what someone else does, without becoming personally implicated in the operation. His principal instrument of observation is his self - his personality, *him* as a person. The processes and the changes in processes that make up the data which can be subjected to scientific study occur, not in the subject person nor in the observer, but in the situation which is created between the observer and his subject. We say that the data of psychiatry arise in participant observation of social interaction, if we are inclined toward the social-psychological approach, or of interpersonal relations, if we are inclined toward the psychiatric approach, the two terms meaning, so far as I know, precisely the same thing. There are no purely objective data in psychiatry, and there are no valid subjective data, because the material becomes scientifically usable only in the shape of a complex resultant - *inference.* (p. 3) As I said at the beginning, psychiatry is peculiarly the field of participant observation...Therefore, the psychiatrist has an inescapable, inextricable involvement in all that goes on in the interview; and to the extent that he is unconscious or unwitting of his participation in the interview, to that extent he does not know what is happening." (p. 18)

Murray Bowen, founder of Family Systems therapy, is Neo-Freudian in his perspective. Even within the context of treating a family, he emphasizes the importance of the relationship with the therapist. He states: "The major characteristic to be examined here is that *the successful introduction of a significant other person into an anxious or disturbed relationship system has the capacity to modify relationships within the system.*" (Bowen, 1985, p. 342)

Ah, but what of the cognitive/behavioral theories? This Second Force relies much on the strength of its techniques and has been criticized for not valuing the therapeutic relationship. Once again, although touting the efficacy of strong techniques, writers in this domain recognize the centrality of the counseling relationship.

Joseph Wolpe is considered one of the founders of Behavior Therapy. He, however, supports the notion of the importance in therapy of the client-counselor relationship by writing:

> "The most enviable feature of behavior therapy is in the command it gives to the therapist, both in general planning of his therapeutic campaign and in modifying its details as he goes along...The power to intervene rationally and predictably makes a striking contrast to the uncertainty of the conventional therapist's position...This being the case, it is not surprising that the literature on conventional psychotherapy gives so much weight to the patient-therapist relationship...As Frank has shown, a relationship is which the therapist is able to mobilize the patient's expectation of help and hope of relief is in and of itself a powerful therapeutic instrument...The procedures of behavior therapy have effects additional to these relational effects that are common to all forms of psychotherapy. The practice of behavior therapy may thus be viewed as a 'double-barrelled' means of alleviating neurotic distress." (Wolpe, 1973, p. 9)

Aaron Beck (1979), one of the leading proponents of cognitive therapy, further supports this view by stating:

> "The general characteristics of the therapist which facilitate the application of cognitive therapy (as well as other kinds of psychotherapies), include warmth, accurate empathy, and genuineness...We believe that these characteristics in themselves are necessary but not sufficient to produce an optimum therapeutic effect. (p. 45) Having considered the therapeutically valuable attributes of the therapist, let us focus on the development and maintenance of a therapeutic relationship. The relationship involves both the patient and the therapist and is based on trust, rapport, and collaboration. Cognitive and behavior therapies probably require the same subtle therapeutic atmosphere that has been described explicitly in the context of psychodynamic therapy." (p. 50)

Constructivism is one of the cognitive theories, which emphasizes the subjective nature of experience. One theorist writes:

"In keeping with their conceptualization of human beings as incipient theorists or narrators of their experience, constructivists envision the basic goal of therapy as the promotion of this meaning-making activity rather than the 'correction' of presumed dysfunctions or deficits in the client's thinking, feeling or behaving. Therefore, in assessment, constructivists concentrate on identifying and eventually reformulating the central metaphors that inform the client's self-narrative as well as personal and shared systems of meaning that prove impermeable in the face of novel experience. This typically carries the constructivist therapist to relatively deep levels of intervention, or second-order change, with a focus on the basic selfhood process...As a process-oriented approach to therapy, constructivism encourages a delicate attunement of the often-inarticulate questions implicit in the client's behavior and attempts to help the client weave through his or her experience threads of significance that lead either to provisional answers or toward better, more incisive questions. Ultimately, the aim of therapy is to create a personal and interpersonal atmosphere in which presenting problems can be reformulated and resolved in language and in which clients can recruit social validation for new, less 'problem-saturated' identities." (Neimeyer, 1995, pp. 17-18)

Narrative therapy is considered a form of constructivist therapy. White and Epston (1990) are among the leading proponents of this form of work. They have stated:

"Insofar as the desirable outcome of therapy is the generation of alternative stories that incorporate vital and previously neglected aspects of lived experience, and insofar as these stories incorporate alternative knowledges, it can be argued that the identification of and provision of the space for the performance of these knowledges is a central focus of the therapeutic endeavor." (p. 31)

The Mental Research Institute in California developed a form of behaviorally oriented Brief Therapy considered especially useful for families. In a book considered a classic exposition of this form of therapy, Fisch, Weakland and Segal (1982) write:

"Given this conception of problems and their resolution, the therapist must be an active agent of change. Not only must he get a clear view of the problem behavior and of the behaviors that function to maintain it; he must also consider what the most strategic change in the 'solutions' might be and take steps to instigate these changes - in the face of the clients' considerable commitments to continuing them. This is the job of the therapist as we see it... (p. 19) It may seem cold and calculating to talk about ways of controlling the process of treatment, but we believe it is evident, on little reflection, that the client is not in a position to know how his problem should best be approached - if he did, why would he be seeking professional help? Accordingly, almost all therapies involve tactics for providing the therapist control of the course of treatment...This is not for the arbitrary purpose of controlling, per se. Rather, it is ethically consistent with our view that the guidance of treatment is an inherent responsibility of the therapist and that it is to the patient's detriment if the therapist abdicates this responsibility." (p. 22)

William Glasser developed Reality Therapy, which is considered rather "hard nosed" and is especially effective with dysfunctional adolescents. Glasser (1965) has a clear view of the importance of the therapeutic alliance, as he states:

"Unless the requisite involvement exists between the necessarily responsible therapist and the irresponsible patient, there can be no therapy. The guiding principles of Reality Therapy are directed toward achieving the proper involvement, a completely honest, human relationship in which the patient, for perhaps the first time in his life, realizes that someone cares enough about him not only to accept him but to help him fulfill his needs in the real world." (p. 21)

Albert Ellis, developer of Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy, is also viewed as a pragmatist, and although he has advocated the possibility of self-analysis, he admits to the central role of the therapist:

"As we often explain to our psychotherapy patients and marriage counseling clients...it is not what the therapist tell the individual that helps this individual overcome his emotional disturbances, but what the patient or client *does* with what the therapist tells him. More concretely: although the effective therapist must somehow teach his patients to think straight, he cannot at any time really think *for* them...This means that therapy, in essence, largely consists of teaching the patient effective self analysis..." (Ellis & Harper, 1961, p. 6)

Richard Stuart has applied behavioral principles to work with couples. He has also indicated the central role the relationship with the therapist plays in therapeutic change:

"In this active approach to treatment, as in the interpersonal approach, the therapist has the responsibility of controlling the therapeutic interaction. It is the job of the therapist to create a therapeutic environment that facilitates the clients' acceptance of change-inducing instigations as much as it is the job of the therapist to render instigations wisely, to evaluate the effects of the intervention, and to use this evaluation-produced feedback to redesign the methods that are used. The power that the therapist must use to do these jobs well must be developed through interaction with the clients..." (Stuart, 1980, p. 149)

Salvador Minuchin (1981), developer of the behavioral family therapy known as Structural Therapy, states:

"Family therapy requires the use of self. A family therapist cannot observe and prove from without. He must be a part of a system of interdependent people. In order to be effective as a member of this system, he must respond to circumstances according to the system's rules, while maintaining the widest possible use of self." (p. 2)

It is undisputed that Third Force has emphasized the importance of the relationship between the therapist and the client. Indeed, this is sometimes seen as the distinctive feature of Third Force theories. A sample of writing confirms this view.

Carl Rogers, founder of Person Centered Therapy (previously called "client centered therapy") has explained the importance of the therapist-client relationship thus:

"In client-centered therapy the client finds in the counselor a genuine alter ego in an operational and technical sense...In the therapeutic experience, to see one's own attitudes, confusions, ambivalences, feelings, and perceptions accurately expressed by another, but stripped of their complications of emotion, is to see oneself objectively, and paves the way for acceptance into the self...In the emotional warmth of the relationship with the therapist, the client begins to experience a feeling of safety as he find that whatever attitude he expresses is understood in almost the same way that he perceive it, and is accepted....In this safe relationship he can perceive for the first time the hostile meaning

> and purpose of certain aspects of his behavior, and can understand why he has felt guilty about it, and why it has been necessary to deny to awareness the meaning of this behavior...The therapist perceives the client's self as the client has known it, and accepts it; he perceives the contradictory aspects which have been denied to awareness and accepts those too as being a part of the client; and both of these acceptances have in them the same warmth and respect. Thus it is that the client, experiencing in another an acceptance of both these aspects of himself, can take toward himself the same attitude. He has been enable to do this because another person has been able to adopt his frame of reference, to perceive with him, yet to perceive with acceptance and respect." (Rogers, 1965, pp. 40-41)

Gestalt therapy was developed by "Fritz" Perls, who writes:

> "Our view of the therapist is that he is similar to what the chemist calls a catalyst, an ingredient which precipitates a reaction which might not otherwise occur. It does not prescribe the form of the reaction, which depends upon the intrinsic reactive properties of the materials present, nor does it enter as a part into whatever compound it helps to form. What it does is to start a process, and there are some processes which, when once started, are self-maintaining or autocatalytic. This we hold to be the case in therapy. What the doctor sets in motion the patient continues on his own." (Perls, *et al.*, 1951, p. 15)

Rollo May (1967), writing about Existential Therapy, states:

> "Another thing to be noticed about this patient who has come to my office is that immediately there is a relationship...The patient, like all beings, has the need and possibility of going out from his centeredness to participate in other beings. He is now struggling with the possibility of participating with the therapist... (pp. 94-95) To be able to sit in a real relationship with another human being who is going through profound anxiety or guilt or the experience of imminent tragedy taxes the best of the humanity in all of us. This is why I emphasize the importance of the 'encounter' and use that word rather than 'relationship'... Encounter is what really happens; it is something much more than a relationship. In this encounter I have to be able, to some extent, to experience what the patient is experiencing. My job as a therapist is to be open to his world. (p. 108) ...As I sit now in relationship with my patient, the principle I continue to assume is: this being, like all existing beings, has the need and possibility of going out from his centeredness to participate in other beings. (p. 119) I would put it...that the task of the therapist is to help the patient transmute awareness into consciousness." (p. 126)

Virginia Satir, a humanist who first wrote of Conjoint Family Therapy, and later called her work the Human Validation Process Model, was particularly succinct about the centrality of the therapist: "If one uses the growth model, one must be willing to be more experimental and spontaneous than many therapists are. The necessity of flexibility in technique and approach, including particularly direct, intimate contact between patient and therapist, is thought to be basic." (Satir, 1983, p. 234)

Prochaska and Norcross (1994), looking at the entire broad range of therapies in all three Forces, explain:

> "Psychotherapy is at root an interpersonal relationship. The single greatest area of convergence among psychotherapists in their nominations of common factors and in their treatment recommendations is the development of a strong therapeutic alliance. Furthermore, as predicted earlier, this most robust of common strategies has generally emerged as one of the major determinants of psychotherapy success. Still, the desirable type and relative importance of the therapeutic relationship are areas of theoretical controversy...In light of these various emphases on the role of the therapeutic relationship in the conduct of psychotherapy, it will be necessary to determine for each therapeutic system whether the relationship is conceived as (1) a precondition for change, (2) a process of change, and/or (3) a content to be changed." (pp. 8-9)

This very brief and necessarily limited overview of some of the writing of theorists in all three Forces of the field of therapy has, hopefully, reminded the reader that the theorists in this field were aware of what innumerable research studies have indicated: That therapy is an effective way of changing the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of human beings (Lambert, 1992), and the relationship between the client and the therapist lies at the very heart of therapy. As one textbook compares and contrasts different theoretical perspectives by stating:

> "First, if it is assumed that the source of many, if not most, of the problems of clients involve disturbed interpersonal relationships, then a therapeutic relationship that includes the characteristics of a good human relationship is a relevant, and specific, method of treatment...Indeed, therapy would be limited if it attempted to help the client develop better interpersonal relationship in the context of a different kind of relationship...The second argument against the view that the relationship is nonspecific is the research on relationship (nonspecific) variables. There is evident that the providing of the relationship as defined here, without any additional techniques, is effective with many clients who have many kinds of social-psychological or interpersonal problems." (Patterson & Watkins., 1996, p. 500)

Or, as another theorist puts it:

> "The therapeutic relationship may very well be the major variable in certain forms of psychotherapy, such as those associated with the psychodynamic and existential-humanistic models and with the newer feminist therapy model. Certainly we learn more about the nature and importance of this relationship from these models than we do from others. Perhaps for those clients who want or need brief problem-solving approaches, technique or medication is more important than relationship, even though relationship is always important as the context for technique. As sociocultural pressures continue to have an eroding impact on family and interpersonal relationships, a qualitative relational therapy often becomes the experiential springboard from which clients can learn to refocus their priorities and to find their self-in-relation. We all have our biases and preferences. While I have enormous respect for each of the major models and utilize them all in some ways at different times, for me the therapeutic relationship provides a critical context for what strategies are utilized to effect intellectual and emotional awareness and to develop competency skills. The connection between therapist and client allow for effective connections between approaches and problems, between theory and practice." (Okun, 1990, p. 410)

This is also pointed out by Kottler (1991):

> "Of all the elements we might name, none receives more attention - both in theory and in practice - than the alliance between client and therapist. It is the glue that binds everything we and the context for every intervention. A productive, open, and trusting relationship is, quite simply, the single most necessary prerequisite for effective psychotherapy (as we currently know and understand it) to take place...The existential or humanistic therapist places primary emphasis on a relationship...All other types of clinicians - regardless of their espoused

allegiances or belief systems - also spend some time developing a relationship that they consider to be necessary for anything else they might do. Most contemporary psychoanalysts, for example, no longer maintain the strict neutrality that was originally advocated by Freud, but rather seek to establish a more authentic encounter. And even those orthodox practitioners who do believe in maintaining a degree of distance so that transference feelings are not compromised still believe that *their* relationship with a client is central to the analytic work that follows. Behavior and cognitive therapists will also now readily acknowledge that their interventions are likely to be more effective if implemented within the context of a relationship that is trusting and open." (pp. 48-49)

Indeed, effective therapy depends upon the efficacy of the therapeutic alliance. As Fancher (1995) succinctly states: "It would seem reasonable to expect psychotherapists to know true things about the human psyche and its problems, and to expect that this knowledge is essential to effective therapy. Recent research has complicated this issue even further. The therapist, perhaps more than the technique, seems to be what counts...Somehow it seems the person, more than what she knows, determines success... Such data are quite consistent with the possibility that personal characteristics or intrinsic healing powers, not professional expertise, account for results." (P. 21.)

To supplement a deeper understanding of the complexities of the therapist-client relationship, the reader is directed to several wonderful books that elaborate extensively on the power of the therapeutic relationship in therapy: Auld & Wyman (1991), Guggenbuhl-Craig (1971), Kahn (1991), Kell & Mueller (1966), and Teyber (1992).

In summary, as one writer states, "There is nothing wrong with influencing the patient; indeed, without the therapist's influence on the patient, there is no therapy worthy of the name. Like it or not, the therapist is influential, he cannot escape that responsibility; the art of psychotherapy lies in promoting and then using one's influence skillfully." (Basch, 1980, p. 6)

Although Asian therapies differ substantially from common Western practice, the element of the importance of a helper is still central. In a discussion of Eastern therapeutic regimes, including yoga and meditation, Morita and Naikan therapies, one commonly used textbook states, "The spectrum of relationships is almost as broad for Asian therapies. Some foster transference, other minimize it; in some the relationship is primary, in others definitely secondary. However, instruction and assistance from a skilled helper is regarded as essential in all Asian practices, which are never entirely solitary." (Walsh, 1995, p. 388) Even when describing meditation, Walsh (1981) says: "In fact, there is *relatively little need* for professional time and energy *once the basic practice has been established*." (p. 487, emphasis added.).

In discussing Shadan, a Zen rest cure, Bankart (1997) states: "Shadan therapy begins with complete rest and more or less total social isolation for up to 30 days. During this period, the patient often may be permitted to communicate directly with only one person, the therapist..." (p. 471) The same author, in discussing Shiatsu massage, says: "This relaxation should be understood as involving the entire aspect of their two persons, including not only touch but also bodily motions and breathing. Through this interaction, the two people develop a deep awareness of each other and of their relationship. Indeed, in Shiatsu the effects of the massage are at least as transpersonal and emotional as they are physical." (p. 482)

In a discussion of Morita Therapy, Reynolds (1981) mentions: "Morita therapists are explicitly directive. They are teachers, experienced guides who, for the most part, have surmounted their own self-imposed limitations through this method. Although the therapist offers authoritative advice, he does express genuine interest in the patient. Avoiding a cold, authoritarian approach, he seeks to establish rapport knowing that a positive relationship will facilitate the therapy process." (p. 493)

Another author reminds the reader that, in particular, Naikan therapy uses the *sensei* as an integral part of the therapy. (Sharf, 1996, p. 567) As Reynolds (1981) formulates the relationship in Naikan therapy: "During each interview the therapist simply listens humbly and gratefully to the outpouring from the client. The therapist then assigns the next topic, answers questions and perhaps offers a word of encouragement, such as 'Reflect deeply, please.'" (p. 548) For a more extensive look at Morita therapy, including how the Morita therapist acts as surrogate parent for the client, and Naikan therapy, the reader is directed to Reynolds (1976).

Now, for a *very brief* examination of the possible benefits of technology. There is no doubt that increasing experience increases knowledge and increased knowledge does lead to change. Thus, access to the a variety of assessment instruments, psychological and interest tests, such as the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and the Strong Interest Inventory, easier and more comprehensive access to job listings, the availability of information about disorders and accompanying support groups for them, and the almost unbelievable amount of data to be reached through a computer - what books have been written, what articles have been published - increases dramatically the resources of both the therapist and the client. Cellular telephones have made the therapist more present to the client than could have been thought possible. Using videotape and audiotape for the client to receive instant feedback on his/her performance is so wonderfully cogent and non-judgmental that any therapist might seriously consider the use of these aids.

But if there is, as research indicates, an agreement that therapy is one of the effective means of changing human behavior and enhancing well being, the pull to replace the therapist with any of the technological mechanisms making their way into the marketplace today must be resisted. It is useless to discuss whether or not the therapist needs to exist in order for therapy to exist. "The helping personal attachment makes psychotherapy an engagement between human beings and emphasizes the nature of the bond that forms between them." (Orlinsky and Howard, 1995, p. 9) Or, as stated by Kottler (1986): "It is not what the therapist does that is important - whether she interprets, reflects, confronts, or role plays - but rather who she is...The first and foremost element of change, then is the therapist's presence..." (pp. 2-3)

Unless we are willing to move to a completely new paradigm for the helping of people, one that has not existed in the previous history of human beings, the relationship between helper and helpee is central to the process and cannot ever be replaced by machines.

REFERENCES

Adler, Alfred. (1979) Superiority and Social Interest. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Auld, Frank & Marvin Hyman. (1991) Resolution of Inner Conflict: An Introduction to Psychoanalytic Therapy. Washington, D.C.. American Psychological Association.

Bankart, C. Peter. (1997) Talking Cures: A History of Western and Eastern Psychotherapies. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing.

Basch, Michael Franz. (1980) Doing Psychotherapy. New York: Basic Books, Inc.

Beck, Aaron T., A. John Rush, Brian F Shaw & Gary Emery. (1979) Cognitive Therapy of Depression. New York: Guilford Press.

Bowen, Murray. (1985) Family Therapy in Clinical Practice. Northvale, NJ: Jason Aronson.

Ellis, Albert & Robert A. Harper (1961) A Guide to Rational Living. No. Hollywood, CA: Wilshire Book Company.

Fancher, Robert T. (1995) Cultures of Healing: Correcting the Image of American Mental Health Care. New York: W. H. Freeman & Co

Fiedler, Fred E (1949) A comparative investigation of early therapeutic relationships created by experts and non-experts of the psychoanalytic, non-directive, and Adlerian schools. Ph.D. thesis, University of Chicago.

Fiedler, Fred E. (1950) The concept of an ideal therapeutic relationship. Journal of Consulting Psychology, *14*, 239-245

Fisch, Richard, John H. Weakland & Lynn Segal. (1982) The Tactics of Change: Doing Therapy Briefly. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Freud, Sigmund. (1964) A General Introduction to Psychoanalysis. New York: Washington Square Press, Inc.

Glasser, William. (1965) Reality Therapy: A New Approach to Psychiatry. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers.

Guggenbuhl-Craig, Adolf. (1971) Power in the Helping Professions. Dallas, TX: Spring Publications, Inc.

Jung, C. G. (1933) Modern Man in Search of a Soul. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc.

Kahn, Michael. (1991) Between Therapist and Client: The New Relationship. New York: W. H. Freeman and Company

Kell, Bill L & William J. Mueller. (1966) Impact and Change: A Study of Counseling Relationships. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Kottler, Jeffrey A. (1986) On Being a Therapist. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Kottler, Jeffrey A. (1991) The Compleat Therapist. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Lambert, Michael J. (1992) Psychotherapy outcome research: Implications for integrative and eclectic therapists. In Handbook of Psychotherapy Integration, edited by John C Norcross and Marvin R. Goldfried. New York: Basic Books.

May, Rollo. (1967) Psychology and the Human Dilemma. Princeton, NJ: D Van Nostrand Company, Inc.

Minuchin, Salvador & H. Charles Fishman (1981) Family Therapy Techniques. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Neimeyer, Robert A. (1995) Constructivist psychotherapies: Features, foundations, and future directions. In Constructivism in Psychotherapy. Edited by Robert A. Neimeyer & Michael J. Mahoney. Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Assoc

Okun, Barbara F. (1990) Seeking Connections in Psychotherapy. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Orlinsky, David E. & Kenneth I. Howard. (1995) Unity and diversity among psychotherapies: A Comparative perspective. In Comprehensive Textbook of Psychotherapy: Theory and Practice edited by Bruce Bongar and Larry E. Beutler. New York: Oxford University Press

Patterson., C. H. & C. Edward Watkins, Jr (1996) Theories of Psychotherapy. New York. HarperCollins College Publishers.

Perls, Frederick, Ralph F. Hefferline & Paul Goodman (1951) Gestalt Therapy: Excitement and Growth in the Human Personality. New York: Dell Publishing Co., Inc.

Prochaska, James O. & John C. Norcross. (1994) Systems of Psychotherapy: A Transtheoretical Analysis. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

Reynolds, David K. (1976) Morita Psychotherapy. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Reynolds, David K. (1981) Morita psychotherapy. In Handbook of Innovative Psychotherapies edited by Raymond J. Corsini. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Reynolds, David K. (1981) Naikan psychotherapy. In Handbook of Innovative Psychotherapies edited by Raymond J. Corsini. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Rogers, Carl R. (1965) Client-Centered Therapy. Houghton Mifflin Company.

Satir, Virginia. (1983) Conjoint Family Therapy. 3rd Edition. Palo Alto, CA: Science and Behavior Books, Inc.

Sharf, Richard S. (1996) Theories of Psychotherapy and Counseling: Concepts and Cases. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Stuart, Richard B. (1980) Helping Couples Change: A Social Learning Approach to Marital Therapy. New York: Guilford Press.

Sullivan, Harry Stack. (1954) The Psychiatric Interview. New York: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc.

Teyber, Edward. (1992) Interpersonal Process in Psychotherapy: A Guide for Clinical Training. 2nd Edition. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

Wachtel, Paul L. (1977) Psychoanalysis and Behavior Therapy: Toward an Integration. New York: Basic Books, Inc., Publishers.

Walsh, Roger. (1995) Asian psychotherapies. In Current Psychotherapies, edited by Raymond J. Corsini and Danny Wedding. Itasca, IL: F. E. Peacock Publishers, Inc.

Walsh, Roger N. (1981) Meditation. In Handbook of Innovative Psychotherapies, Raymond J. Corsini (ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

White, Michael & David Epston. (1990) Narrative Means to Therapeutic Ends. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Wolpe, Joseph. (1973) The Practice of Behavior Therapy. 2nd Edition. New York: Pergamon Press Inc.

THE NATURE OF SELF-INTEGRATED AUTHENTICITY IN COUNSELORS AND THERAPISTS

Laura Smillie Heid, Ph.D.

Dr. Heid is Associate Professor at Saint Mary's College in Moraga, California, where she teaches in the Graduate Counseling Program in the School of Education.

Mary T. Parish, Ed.D.

Dr. Parish is an Assistant Professor at Saint Mary's College in Moraga, California, where she teaches in the Graduate Counseling Program in the School of Education, and a trainer of HIV and Sexually Transmitted Disease Counselors for the State of California.

The authors wish to acknowledge the Faculty Development Fund at Saint Mary's College for financial support toward presenting this paper at the Sixth International Counseling Conference in Beijing, China, May, 1997.

Less than one hundred years ago, one's worldview or frame of reference was often defined by family, village, and town, and most people died before the age of 65 (Santrock, 1996). There was little need or expectation for one to expand upon or develop beyond this worldview, and for many people, institutional religions and family culture provided structure and meaning. Now, on the brink of the 21st century, our worldviews are still originally defined by our families and cultures, but growing numbers of people have exposure to and interactions with others from different countries, religions, and backgrounds. And, on the average, people live 22 years longer (Santrock, 1996). We are challenged daily, and for longer lifespans, to function and relate in a world that is constantly increasing in complexity, much more than even a generation ago.

These changes are influenced by rapid and complex escalation of technology and an emphasis on global circulation of information and resources. Ironically, while electronic technology allows us to interface with larger numbers of people and acquire massive amounts of information, it can also engender physical, psychic, and emotional isolation; increased use of technology runs the risk of impeding the creation and nourishment of caring and genuine relationships (Taha & Calwell, 1993). Given these risks, we believe that counselor educators and therapists are in a unique position to be cognizant of and committed to the development of relationships that require a type of connection and quality of interaction that is not necessarily achievable and often hindered through the use of technological advances.

In a previous paper (Heid & Parish, 1995), we posited that within a therapeutic relationship there are two levels functioning simultaneously: one is the working level of the client and counselor and the second is the basic human level, in which the counselor offers a stance of mutual respect and equality. In this paper, we will expand upon the second level by examining its nature and qualities. We will be positing a basic human connection characterized by what we have termed "self-integrated authenticity." In essence, the capacity for self-integrated authenticity requires a level of self-development and concominant authenticity emanating from self-authorship, a striving toward balance between conscious and unconscious, and a willingness to share one's soul that allows for qualitatively distinctive manifestations of genuineness and empathy.

We will utilize Kegan's (1982, 1994) constructive developmental theory about the evolution of consciousness and meaning-making to analyze the essence and development of self-integrated authenticity. We will propose that the capacity for self-integrated authenticity is a developmental attainment that requires one to be at least approaching Kegan's fourth order of consciousness. Finally, we will suggest the implications of this perspective for counselor education and its applications to the teaching, training, and supervision of counselors and therapists.

Kegan's Constructive Developmental Theory

Kegan (1982, 1994) views human beings as meaning-makers in the sense that one's very being is the context for meaning-making and one's living is the process of meaning-making, which is the way humans organize and make sense out of their thoughts, feelings, and relationships to others and to themselves. The evolution of consciousness, or the ways in which one makes meaning, is a lifelong process that develops through five sequential "orders of consciousness."

Development from one order of consciousness to another is a process that involves a very gradual qualitative transformation in the ways one perceives the world, constructs knowledge, and relates to relationships with others and oneself. Transitions from one order to another are not strictly age-related, especially at the third, fourth, and fifth orders. Progression to the third order may begin in late adolescence and the 20s, and most adults, according to Kegan, are in this order. The fourth order may be developmentally attained after the age of 30, and Kegan estimates that about one-third of adults function at this order. The rarely attained fifth order, (perhaps about 10% of adults), is possible to achieve in middle to late adulthood.

Development from one order to another is not linear and, depending on circumstances, persons involved, and states of mind, one can function at any of the orders up to the highest order one is approaching or has attained. For example, one can respond to one client or student from the second order and another client or student from the fourth order (if one has begun the transition to fourth order); also, one could respond to the same client or student from a different order of consciousness under different circumstances. The transformation from one order to another involves a dynamic tension among the confirmation and stability of the current order, the challenges and opportunities for development to the subsequent order, and encouragement and support for the progression.

We postulate that movement to the fourth order is necessary to develop the capacity for self-integrated authenticity. For the purpose of this paper, we will discuss only the third and fourth orders of consciousness, specifically as they apply to the two levels of the therapeutic relationship. (See Blanusa, 1997, in these proceedings, for a fuller description of the third and fourth orders and examples of how modern demands and challenges require fourth order ways of thinking and being.)

The Working Level of the Therapeutic Relationship and the Third Order of Consciousness

The working level of the therapeutic relationship involves desire on the counselor's part to assist clients in achieving their personal goals. Counselors demonstrate caring and compassion for their clients and are capable of learning what we call "skill-based empathy," wherein they can listen to others and respond verbally in ways that let the clients know they are being understood. Clients may gain insight and make behavior changes. At the working level, counselors tend to rely on theories and techniques as the tools to facilitate client insight and change.

Kegan (1982, 1994) defines the third order of consciousness as involving a "self" that is defined by external expectations and "shoulds"; there is little self-authorship. We suggest that the third order self is similar to Jung's (1928) "persona," which is the unconscious projection of who one thinks others want or expect one to be. In defining the persona, Jung described clients who were in the first half of their lives as relatively uninvolved with the inner process of individuation and who tended to be concerned with external achievement and the attainment of goals of the ego. Given the self as persona that is operating at the third order of consciousness, "genuineness" takes on a particular meaning as the counselors who demonstrate genuineness from this order are offering their personas to clients. While we acknowledge that counselors at the third order can be genuine with their clients, the genuineness is curtailed by the circumscribed self that is available to the counselors' consciousness, and thus, to the clients.

At the third order, one has the capacity to internalize others' points of view and to be empathic, but the empathy is narrowed by the perspective of the third order wherein one is embedded in one's beliefs, values, norms, and assumptions, (which come from one's family and culture). One is one's beliefs, values, and assumptions, which are usually unconscious and unquestioned. To use a common metaphor, persons at the third order are like trees in the middle of a forest, and all they see and know are trees just like themselves; they are not aware that they are in a forest nor that other forests exist.

Thus, for counselors at the third order, mutuality and empathy are possible with others like themselves; differences are threatening, frightening, and incomprehensible, (which is why the range and depth of one's capacity to be empathic is limited). Often, the mutuality and empathy with others who feel and think and behave like oneself approaches fusion. There is also a heightened awareness of others' needs and the belief (whether conscious or not) of being responsible for others' feelings and thoughts (and vice versa).

Counselors at the third order can establish a working alliance with clients and respond empathically from their personas. Counselors struggle to understand the clients' experience cognitively and emotionally, so that they can help clients achieve their therapeutic goals. Both counselors and clients can grow and change as a result of therapy at the working level. The clients' changes tend to be concrete and tangible. The counselors' changes include enhancement or honing of current clinical knowledge and therapeutic interventions.

While we acknowledge and value the work and change that occurs via the first level of the therapeutic relationship, the psychic change and growth that can occur at the second level is qualitatively different and is dependent upon the therapist's capacity to offer self-integrated authenticity to the client. Again, we propose that a therapist needs to be approaching Kegan's fourth order of consciousness in order to develop the capacity for this type of connection.

The Human Level of the Therapeutic Relationship and the Fourth Order of Consciousness

While the qualities of genuineness and empathy of third order counselors are adequate for the working level of therapy, the second level of therapy, which involves one's essential humanness or being, requires a qualitatively different intrapsychic experience and interpersonal connection, which we are calling self-integrated authenticity. There are no specialized skills or therapeutic strategies required at this level, only the capacity for the counselor to be fully present with the client. Thus, counselors need to be developing a self that goes beyond the persona of the third order, to unveil what Jung (1928) calls the "essential individuality of the person," and to be willing to share this self with the client. We propose that this second level of therapy requires a self that is functioning at the fourth order of consciousness.

The self functioning at the fourth order is self-authorizing and integrates the conscious and unconscious aspects of being. At this order, one can objectively view beliefs, values, and shoulds and consciously choose those that one wishes to have. One has values about one's values, but is not defined by the values. Similarly, one has relationships to one's relationships, rather then being in relationships; one is, therefore, sensitive to others but not responsible for others' thoughts and feelings. For example, counselors at the fourth order are responsible for their own feelings and thoughts and can critically evaluate their ideas, beliefs, values, and assumptions. Differences are not only respected but also valued.

These fourth order changes give rise to a qualitatively different fourth order empathy that is not easily quantifiable or teachable. Therapists are able to hear and empathically respond to the client, while continuing to relate to their own internal experience and relationship to self, and they assume responsibility for their own internal process and that of the therapeutic relationship. Empathy at the fourth order is not simply a mirroring process (Jordan, 1991) in which the therapist reflects back the client's experience. Rather, it involves a reciprocal process in which therapists take in the client's experience, interact with it intrapsychically, and offer back to the client that experience as it has been touched and deeply understood by the therapists' essence of being.

When therapists function at the second level, the possible outcomes of the therapeutic relationship involve personal growth for both client and therapist. As the therapists struggle to understand the client's experience, they engage in self-reflection and inner growth occurs; they have the capacity to look internally to examine how and why they are affected by the client's experience and to take responsibility for their own feelings, attitudes, and reactions and for their relationship with the client. This ability to self-reflect in the present moment while viewing one's past experience allows for conscious decisions and behaviors for changing one's future. At the second level, having the capacities for self-integrated authenticity and fourth order empathy, therapists can offer their essential humanness for client healing to occur.

Implications for Counselor Education, Training, and Supervision

Implicit in our discussion of self-integrated authenticity and the qualitative differences between genuineness and empathy at the third and fourth orders of consciousness are several critical implications for counselor education, training, and supervision. We need to consider how to most effectively teach and train counselors who are functioning at different orders of consciousness. To do so, we must first assess students' orders of consciousness and then create training environments and teaching and supervision strategies to meet the students where they are. For example, basic skills training in counseling may be most effective with students at the second and third orders of consciousness, and perhaps even for some at the fourth order. However, fourth order students would also benefit from a training environment and relationships with faculty and supervisors that stimulate and support fourth order ways of thinking and being. (See Taylor & Marienau, 1995, regarding how educators can facilitate adult learners' transformation to fourth order.)

As we have postulated, self-integrated authenticity and mutual empathy are fourth order capacities that are not tangible or trainable; we need to consider how we can best inspire, model, and cultivate these capacities in students who are approaching or at the fourth order. Finally, in addition to meeting the students where they are and providing learning strategies that fit the needs of the various orders of consciousness, we believe that counselor educators are in an ideal position to craft environments and opportunities for people at the second and third orders to make incremental shifts toward the next order of consciousness. Further research and discussion are needed to discover how counselor educators and supervisors can continue their own development of consciousness while empowering their students to do the same.

References

Blanusa, J. (1997, May). Care and making meaning in the age of technology. Paper presented at the Sixth International Counseling Conference, Beijing, China.

Heid, L. S., & Parish, M. T. (1995, December). Partnership cultures in the 21st century: Is the counseling profession ready? Paper presented at the Fifth International Counseling Conference, Hong Kong.

Jordan, J. (1991). The meaning of mutuality. In J. Jordan, A. Kaplan, J. B. Miller, I. Stiver, & J. Surrey (Eds.), Women's growth in connection: Writings from the Stone Center (pp. 81-96). New York: The Guilford Press.

Jung, C. The relations between the ego and the unconscious. In Collected Works (Vol.7). (Originally published 1928.)

Kegan, R. (1994). In over our heads: The mental demands of modern life. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Kegan, R. (1982). The evolving self: Problem and process in human development. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Santrock, J. W. (1995). Life-span development (5th ed.). Dubuque, IA: Brown and Benchmark.

Taha, L., & Calwell, B. (1993). Social isolation and integration in electronic environments. Behavior and Information Technology, 12(5), 278-283.

Taylor, K., & Marienau, C. (Eds.). (1995). Learning environments for women's adult development: Bridges toward change. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

ENHANCING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE COUNSELOR THROUGH THE APPLICATION OF MEDIATED LEARNING EXPERIENCE

Louis H. Falik
Professor of Counseling
San Francisco State University

Training and Research Fellow
International Center for the Enhancement of Learning Potential
Jerusalem, Israel

The complex interpersonal process that is counseling includes dimensions of interviewing skills, assessing the presenting concerns of the client, understanding dynamics of behavior and change, and the employment of a repertoire of techniques and appropriate interventions. To be effective, the counselor must use these skills in an organized, systematic and intentional way. Whatever one's specific methodological orientation, the counselor's responses must be cognizant of the process of the interaction, and related to helping the client to achieve behavioral change objectives that move the client toward relevant and desired outcomes.

This complexity requires an integration, either explicitly in a theoretical or methodological context, or at an implicit functional level. Beginning counselors often struggle with the integration, but as one gains experience the process usually becomes integrated and responses to the client, with increasing frequency, become seamless, spontaneous, and intuitive. This paper proposes an integrative model that is constructed to help the beginning counselor, as well as more experienced counselors and therapists, utilize the essential elements of the process, and apply a flexible and relevant repertoire of skills to formulate appropriate responses. The model identifies the integrated conditions of the therapeutic process that need to be systematically accounted for to create change, and a bridging mechanism to connect specific process skills to the desired therapeutic change objectives.

The Theoretical and the Practical

The proposed integrative model is based on a theoretical construct and the summarization of a large body of work in counseling skills and process training. The theory is that of Reuven Feuerstein's **structural cognitive modifiability (SCM)**. The base of practical application comes from the microskills training movement stimulated by Carkhuff (1969), and elaborated by many others in the field, among them Ivey (1994), Egan (1986), and Kagan (1995). It has been proposed elsewhere (Falik and Feuerstein, 1990) that SCM is a theory that can usefully be applied to counseling and psychotherapeutic processes.

SCM rests on three central tenants: that there is a strong relationships between the parts and the whole of the person, that individuals are naturally drawn to becoming involved in the process of change or transformation, and that human development is self-perpetuating, self regulating, and actively seeking to be involved in the process of change. When the individual is blocked or impeded in the change process, thaere is a natural potential for modifiability, stimulating natural adaptational tendencies. Development is not fixed or immutable--it is open to continuous change in response to the demands of the environment. An essential aspect of SCM is that interventions do not simply change specific behaviors, but changes the inner structural nature of the individual, with the power to alter the course of development, at both behavioral and inner process/experience levels. The mechanism for this change is **mediated learning experience** (MLE) which is integrated as one of the constituent elements of the proposed integrative model.

The microskills movement in counselor research and training has identified relevant phases, aspects, and elements generic to the counseling process. When structurally identified, isolated and mastered, it is expected that these process elements will be integrated into an effective response repertoire directed toward client change objectives. It is proposed to add MLE to this structural conception, as a *bridge* between structural skills and relevant applications. The process skills can thus be viewed as the "how" of counseling, and the parameters of MLE as guides to interventions, or the "what" of the therapeutic intervention.

Elements of the Integrative Model

The goal of this work is the creation of a working model that can be utilized as a map and guide for the counselor in conceptualizing the counseling process, to determine initial and ongoing process responses relevant to the needs of the client, and to develop both short-term and longer range clinical goals.

The model thus incorporates four inter-related and dynamic elements:

Two major dimensions:

(1) Developmental **phases** or stages of the counseling process which represent temporal and experiential aspects of the counseling relationship.

(2) the functional components of **MLE** as criterial parameters that frame the therapeutic change objectives of the encounter, and

Two response modalities that are present in all interpersonal interactions, and enter into the specific formulation counseling responses:

(3) the **focus of the interaction** on content or process,

(4) the formulation of the **quality of the response**, in an overt/explicit or covert/implicit manner.

These elements provide a descriptive picture (or map) of the relevant interactive dynamics of the counseling process, and can be selected, manipulated, and used to heighten the systematic, planful, purposive nature of the interactive encounter.

(1) Developmental Phases: There are four generally accepted phases to the counseling process. An **attending** phase that creates conditions under which the counseling will take place, and conveys messages regarding the safety of the situation, the importance of the work, the value of the client, and the counselors interest and commitment to the activity. This phase has both verbal and non-verbal attributes. The foundation is laid for further phases of the work. The **listening** phase occurs relatively early in the process, and is characterized by the client's being encouraged to "tell the story" and begin to gain access to the details of his/her experience. Specific interviewing skills come into play here, as the counselor facilitates the accessing, and the broadening and deepening of client experience. At this phase the client's experience is framed so as to move to more active, change-oriented phases. The transition to **responding** phase activities is subtle, but is characterized by having a good "frame" created, and the beginning of searching and stretching the frame to determine the deeper, more meaningful, and change oriented issues to be worked on. The work of this phase, in the employment of interviewing skills, is to

create a "reframe," or a working reformulation of the critical issues for the client. The last developmental phase is **intervening**, as client and counselor move actively into addressing various specific aspects of the problem or issue. This requires a clear identification of the problem and careful attention to goals, desired outcomes, and relevant steps to change along the way. At this phase the counselor's specific repertoire of intervention activities (techniques, methodological tools) is employed.

(2) Parameters of Mediated Learning Experience (MLE)

According to Feuerstein (1979, 1980, 1991) MLE is a central aspect of human experience. In the counseling relationship, the counselor draws the client into an interaction that creates conditions for mediation, freeing up as many and powerful experiences as can be brought into the human experience and directed toward growth and change. The MLE concept provides criterial dimensions of this human experience, and allows for an identification and manipulation of the interviewing skill and process elements. In the integrative model, they become the "what" of the encounter--guiding what the counselor says or does, or chooses not to say or do.

There are 12 parameters of MLE: three are considered "universal" in that they must be present to some degree in all interpersonal encounters. The remaining nine are "situational" in that they may or may not be present given the particular conditions of the encounter. In any given interaction, the counselor's responses contain varying combinations of different mediational objectives, with differential emphasis, inclusion, intensity, and focus.

The universal or generic MLE parameters are: **intentionality/reciprocity** that creates the reason and clear purpose of the interaction and engages the client in responding with comfort and mutual understanding, **transcendence** which takes the encounter beyond the immediate experience toward broader issues and generalizable themes, and **meaning** that conveys the importance and relevance of the client's experience and therapeutic activity. These parameters are of central focus in the earlier developmental phases, but remain present (at implicit levels) throughout the course of a counseling relationship.

The parameters which are differentially emphasized depending on the relevance of the situation are: mediation of feelings of **competence** wherein the client is helped to develop a positive belief in his or her ability to overcome difficulties by acknowledging already possessed strengths and the need for **challenge, novelty and complexity,** encouraging the client to face new, unfamiliar, or previously frightening experience. **Self-regulation and control of behavior** mediates client's experience in developing the skills in monitoring and adjusting responses to situations. **Sharing behavior** mediates the needs and skills of cooperation and empathic connections with others. The mediation of **individuation and psychological differentiation** presents opportunities to emphasize client uniqueness and difference as a positive aspect of human experience. **Goal seeking, setting, and achieving** activities focus on the relevance of creating both a need state and the skills of making plans and moving toward achieving them. The mediation of the need and capacity for **self change**, a search for **optimistic alternatives**, and a feeling of **belonging** relate to aspects of the client's belief system that activates a wide range of behavioral changes. These parameters suggest creating in the client both an openness to experience and a need state that moves into specific activities, within the counseling relationship and the outer life of the client.

(3) The Focus of the Interaction: Content/Process

An interpersonal interaction is a blend of **content** and **process**. Content is the details and specifics of the individual's experience. Process is the feelings, affect, and immediate experience in the interaction (either related to the client's experience of the content or the immediate reactions to the counseling situation). While there is an essential interaction between content and process, in the counseling interaction there is value and necessity in differentiating between them, and focusing on one or the other at various phases of the work or on various specific mediational objectives. It is part of the planful, systematic, and focused nature of the counseling encounter. Experienced counselors learn (almost intuitively) when to emphasize one over the other, for the client's benefit and to facilitate the forward movement of the work.

(4) The Quality of the Counselor's Response--Explicit/Implicit

Counselor's formulate their responses in direct, overt, open ways (explicitness) or in indirect, subtle, covert ways (implicitness). The choice is both strategic and tactical. Having a sense of the client's readiness, comfort, need states, and readiness for confrontation, as well as a sense of the longer range goals and directions for movement determines decisions on this dimension of interaction. The quality of response is somewhat independent of the MLE parameters and the focus of response, but is related to the developmental phase of the counseling relationship. The latter is dependent upon the client's level of trust and comfort with the process (attending phase), the time and depth of exploration of content (listening phase), and the readiness for confrontation or challenge (responding phase). This dimension is also more subject to considerations of methodological orientation--that is, some of the counselor's theoretical beliefs about the ways in which to apply specific activity (technical interventions) in the counseling process.

Integrating These Dimensions into a Model

The functional implication of integrating these dimensions with one another is to understand that at any point in the counseling relationship, any (and each) response formulated or evoked has differential meaning according to the dimensions of the model. Isolating a given response or intervention can be seen structurally--giving the counselor a heightened sense of its meaning and function in the relationship, and enabling the elaboration, reduction, or adaptation of subsequent responses according to the criterial dimensions observed and understood. It is suggested that this capacity to analyze and manipulate the counseling process gives the counselor control and purposiveness, reflected in the ability to both understand and flexibly react to what is perceived.

As a specific example, a given response or intervention can be subjected to the following analysis: (1) what phase of the counseling process does it occur within, and what are the criterial elements relative to that phase; (2) what mediational objectives are being persued, and how do they fit within the context of tactical and strategic goals for the client; (3) is the interaction primarily focused on content or process, what is the degree of overlap, and on what basis is the response focus chosen; and (4) is the counselor's response framed in an overt, explicit manner or a covert and implicit manner, and on what basis is the choice being made. Further, once this analysis is undertaken, issues of directionality can be considered--how is the client responding, what has been the progression of the relationship and work, where does the counselor want to go, and how does the current level and nature of response conform to this intentional progression.

Applications for Training and Supervision

This integrative model has been used with beginning counselors and psychotherapists, as an adjunct to initial interviewing skills training. It has also been used with more advanced students, as a bridge between their skills training and the initial phases of clinical process thinking. Experienced therapists have been introduced to the model, in the context of supervision and advanced training as a method to retrospectively analyze their process and consider modifications in clinical responses, case formulation, or strategic planning.

Some examples of applications in instructional, supervison, and consulting are:

(1) the creation of worksheets that enable the counselor to review a particular session (using audio or video tape) and identify responses within the context of the dimensions of the model. This can be elaborated into the creation of a session process map, wherein the dimensions of the model are applied to the overall content of the session, as a way of helping the counselor to obtain an overview of what occurred in the session related to where the counselor sees themselves being in the whole case.

(2) the creation of schematic depictions of basic counseling process dimensions related to elements of the model, to foster understanding of the dynamics of process. Several such products are the phases of the relationship related to the efficacy of content or process and the overlapping of content and process, the nature of parallel processes in counseling as a function of MLE parameters, the concepts of framing and reframing as they appear in the developmental stages of the counseling process and in relation to mediational objectives.

(3) the development of instructional vignettes, which have embedded within them particular dimensions of the counseling process, and that are presented to students or workshop participants to give them practice with identifying and differentiating elements of the counseling process.

Summary and Conclusions

The integrative model described above has been used in a variety of instructional, supervisory, and consultative contexts. Initial reactions have been positive and have encouraged the author to proceed further. It has not been subjected to experimental testing, and so its ultimate validity remains to be assessed. It shows promise of generating a new and differently focused methodology for teaching counseling process, particularly for the gap between interviewing skills and clinical process analysis--that so many students and therapists experience in their training and development.

Clearly, the most unique contribution of the model is the integration of MLE criteria into the clinical process. It is our contention that using MLE in conjunction with the other elements of the model creates an observational index to assess the extent to which a client has begun to experience inner structural changes as a consequence of the therapeutic encounter, and as a guide to help the counselor formulate and/or evaluate responses in the context of the therapeutic relationship:

Assessing Structural Change: The parameters of mediation, considered as elements of inner change and adaptive or modificational potential can provide a perspective to identify client strengths and continuing needs. This is reflected in behavioral situations, and as clients retain changes in the face of new or currest stressors, and as they are generalized to new situations.

Formulating and Evaluating Responses: For the counselor, the model enables a careful, structured, and systematic evaluation of the ongoing working dimensions of the counseling process. Reviewing tapes or transcripts of counseling sessions, within the perspective of the model, can identify the extent to which events in the session give evidence of the range of mediational activities and the kinds of responses formulated and implemented during the session. By further differentiating the process, the counselor can identify critical dimensions which enter into the formulation of new responses and improvement in the quality of the interaction. For example: (a) intended outcomes (what did the counselor want to have happen at a particular point in the session); (b) selection of a content or process focus (what material in the session did the client respond to, and why); (c) the implicit or explicit quality of the responding in the session (were the responses indirect and covert or more active, direct, and clearly delivered, and what were the reasons for this way of responding), and (d) the appropriate and desired phase of the counseling process (where in the developmental stage of the counseling process does the work seem to be, and how does the response fit with the perceived developmental stage of the relationship).

In summary, integrating MLE criteria with the dimensions of the counseling process holds promise of enabling counselors to better understand therapeutic interactions and to plan appropriate responses and interventions in a systematic and effective manner. The explicit use of the functional criteria of mediated learning experience will help the counselor to improve both the content and process of his/her work.

(PARTICIPANTS WILL BE PROVIDED WITH SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATIONS OF THE ESSENTIAL CONCEPTS AND INSTRUCTIONAL EXAMPLES)

References

Carkhuff, R. (1969) *Helping and human relations* (Vols 1 &2). New York: Holt Rinehart & Winston.

Egan, G. (1991) *The skilled helper* (3rd. ed.). Monterey, CA: Brooks-Cole.

Falik, L. H. & Feuerstein, R. (1990) Structural cognitive modifiability: A new perspective for counseling and psychotherapy. *International Journal of Cognitive Education and Mediated Learning*, 1(2), 143-150.

Feuerstein, R. (1979) *The dynamic assessment of retarded performers*. Baltimore, MD: University Park.

Feuerstein, R. (1980) *Instrumental Enrichment*. Baltimore, MD: University Park.

Feuerstein, R. & Feuerstein, S (1991) Mediated learning theory: A theoretical review. In R. Feuerstein, P.S. Klein & A. J. Tannenbaum (eds.), *Mediated learning experience: theoretical, psychosocial and learning implications*. London: Freund.

Ivey, A. (1988) *Intentional interviewing and counseling* (2rd. ed.) Monterey, CA: Brooks-Cole.

Kagan, N. (1995) *Interpersonal process recall: A method of influencing human interaction*. Amhurst, MA: Microskills Training Associates.

Maintaining Compassion in an Era of Health Care Management Technology

Ron Hood, Ph.D.
Blue Ridge Psychological Services
Boone, NC 28608

Geri Miller, Ph.D.
Department of Human Development and Psychological Counseling
Appalachian State University
Boone, NC 28608

Because of concerns over rising health care costs, managed health care systems evolved to contain costs as well as provide quality care (Austad & Berman, 1995). This evolution has also included awareness of the interaction between the mind and the body, and the development of short-term therapeutic interventions thereby resulting in the inclusion of mental health coverage by managed health care systems (Austad & Berman, 1995).

The impact of managed care on the therapeutic relationship has been debated and contested by a variety of professional groups (Langman-Dorwart, Wahl, Singer, & Dorwart, 1992; Crane, 1995; Pipal, 1995). Confidentiality issues, reimbursement practices, and concerns regarding the making of treatment needs decisions may negatively impact the client-therapist treatment alliance. Cantor (1997), president of the American Psychological Association, sharply criticized managed care practices: "I am confident that as more people become aware of the outrageous behavior of managed mental health-care companies, public pressure will force changes in the way in which these services are being rationed" (p. 2).

Contrasting views of managed mental health care utilization review practices have described them as providing an accurate matching of services to clients and monitoring effectiveness of those services (Langman-Dorwart et al., 1992). In this view, a necessary balance between utilization review cost containment recommendations and client needs is determined by an interaction between managed care case providers and therapists. Langman-Dorwart et al. (1992) report that clinicians, providers, and service workers now need to work together closely in order to provide the best match of services for the client while accounting for cost effectiveness.

A delicate balance between the needs of treatment planning for cost containment and the primary needs of the client is required for the best psychotherapy. However, an important part of psychotherapy is the compassion of the counselor which impacts the nurturing and healing processes necessary for the therapeutic alliance between client and therapist. One of the influences on counselor compassion are the requirements of managed care guidelines which may enhance or inhibit the presence of the compassion. Enhancement of compassion may occur when the client is involved in the treatment planning process thereby improving the client's involvement and commitment for a positive, effective outcome. By contrast, overly emphasizing outcome and goal directed treatment planning may dramatically inhibit and subtly impact the therapeutic alliance between client and therapist. The question confronting therapists in the current health care environment is: How can therapists maintain their treatment integrity and act compassionately to their clients when a significant and possibly unknown third party may be directing treatment decisions?

The managed care case manager, although not physically present, has a potentially powerful impact on the client-therapist relationship. The interactions between the case manager, the therapist, and the client provide opportunities for scapegoating, poor communication, and disruption to client care. Pipal (1995) describes these interactions as distressed triangles. These triangles are characterized by indirect communication, secrets, radical shifts of empowerment, anxiety, shame, and confused loyalties. In order to create and maintain effective psychotherapy, the therapist needs to maintain professional integrity which involves professional interactions in the triad of case manager, therapist, and client. Sachs (1996) warns that therapists need to avoid feeling dehumanized in the process of working in a managed care environment in order to avoid doing dehumanized psychotherapy with clients.

Compassion as a Coping Mechanism

One coping approach for therapists in a managed care environment is to become more involved in the system that is impacting therapy changes. Pipal (1995) suggests that the mental health professional become involved in state and national groups which speak out and lobby against the negative impact of managed care on psychotherapy. Such involvement may preserve professional identity and the healing aspects of therapy. Other approaches suggest the importance of coordinated work among professionals. Berman and Austad (1995) suggest that varying disciplines of mental health cooperate with each other because of the systemic nature of managed care. Steenbarger, Smith, and Budman (1996) recommend that clinicians incorporate research into their practice group model so they can examine psychotherapy processes and outcomes allowing them to make informed decisions. This cooperation between scientists and practitioners may be critical because of the growing tendency for managed care programs to use outcomes research of psychotherapy to guide their policy making (Beutler, Kim, Davison, Karno, & Fisher, 1996). While therapists may use a combination of approaches, such as these, to cope in the managed care environment, a baseline, philosophical approach is being offered here. That approach is one based in compassion for oneself as the therapist, compassion for the managed care professional, and compassion for the client.

Lewin (1996) describes compassion as a central value of counseling which fuels the counseling process. Compassion requires an active involvement from the therapist that includes the core qualities, values, and life experiences of the therapist. An essential aspect of compassion is the concept that we are all interrelated. Awareness of this interrelationship can enhance the case manager-therapist-client relationship by helping all three individuals realize that they share different aspects of the therapeutic relationship necessary for the healing powers of psychotherapy to occur. Although each individual in the triad is responsible for their portion of the interaction, it may be most appropriate for the therapist to invite the presence of compassion into the triad.

One of the areas of difficulty for the therapist is trying to understand the perspective of the managed health care professional. In an attempt to enhance understanding, the first author contacted four managed health care case managers by phone, while discussing reimbursement for clients in treatment with the therapist, for their perspectives on compassion.

They were asked to respond to questions about the compassionate interaction of the triad. Respondents were told that their responses would be anonymous and would be included in this presentation. They were asked about their type of employment within their respective managed care organizations. Respondents were asked the following three questions:

1. What is the importance of compassion in the therapist-client interaction?

   2. How important is compassion in the therapist-case manager interaction?
   3. How do you define compassion?

Although all three questions were asked of each respondent, each respondent emphasized them differently.

Managed Care Professionals' Views on Compassion

Claims Processing Agent

This individual defined herself as the "end of the line claim processing agent." She reported that she had no interaction with the therapist-client relationship and that her work allowed no room for compassion. Initially she stated, "The only thing I do is follow the [insurance] plan." Later in the conversation she indicated that she does use compassion in her work by explaining the plan and available options to the consumer or provider and asks, "How can I help and insure that your claim is being processed fairly?"

Managed Care Representative

This individual worked for a group which had only master or doctoral level therapists, who were licensed in their field and provided at least part-time treatment services. She believed that she and her colleagues were sensitive to client and therapist needs because this group of case managers also completed managed care forms for other programs. She said they attempted to keep treatment forms to a minimum with a focus on behaviors. She reported treating "...every person [providers, clients, hospital personnel] as a customer." While managed care plans cannot be altered at times to provide the necessary services needed by a client, she said, "I try to help providers to work with the limitations of the health care plan." She said that she shows compassion for providers by helping them develop more behavioral plans because "the majority [of therapists] are not trained to do treatment plans."

Nursing Supervisor

This individual currently determines medical necessity for a medical report. She had worked in the medical review field for many years. She said she recalled a time when mental health care was not covered by insurance carriers and views today's mental health options as more available to clients. She stated that compassion was an "empathetic relationship with the patient to maximize their well-being" and it starts by "putting the client needs first and helping the client grow." She described managed care as "maximizing client care especially for mental health care."

Provider Relations Specialist

This individual described compassion as a "willingness to assist a person to achieve a goal and help the person work within that framework of the managed care system and health care plan." With regard to the case manager-therapist-client triad, she stated: "The managed care company works for the best interest of the client with more compassion between the client and the managed care worker than between the company and the therapist. The plan requirements dictate what is compassionate for the member which may not be compassionate for the therapist. Being compassionate may be setting limits. Therapists may need to set limits. Compassion is to push a little harder or allow the client to make more of their decision-not overdoing for the client."

Summary

While the phone interviews with these respondents only involved four individuals, they indicate that at least with some managed care professionals that there may be a shared point of view that "we are all in this together." The emphasis given by these four respondents was on combining compassion in therapy with accountability. Whether this viewpoint is punctuated due to a knowledge that mental health services were not previously as widely available to as many individuals or that the managed care plan requires such accountability, the phone interviews underscored the concept that we, case manager, therapist, client, are all interrelated and need to work together on meeting the needs of the client within the constraints of the plan. As Langman-Dorwart, et al (1992) state: "The era is past when providers alone could determine the course of treatment for patients, subsequently bill the third party for payment and assume reimbursement" (p. 352).

As therapists, then, we may be able to work more effectively with managed care case managers by adopting the philosophy of compassion whereby we are all seen as interrelated. This philosophy may allow us to work more cooperatively with the managed care system both for the benefit of ourselves and our clients. Those of us who have worked as therapists previous to the expansive managed health care market, may need to be compassionate toward ourselves and allow ourselves some room to grieve the changed marketplace of health care. Perhaps it is best to end with Lewin's comment on compassion: "To reflect on compassion is to see a tuning fork for the heart so that we can both keep our hearts in that part of our living and loving we call work and also take heart from our work" (p. 32).

References

Austad, C. S., & Berman, W. H. (1995). Managed health care and the evolution of psychotherapy. In C. S. Austad, & W. H. Berman (Eds.), Psychotherapy in managed health care (pp. 3-18). Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.

Berman, W. H., & Austad, C. S. (1995). Managed mental health care: Current status and future directions. In C. S. Austad and W. H. Berman (Eds.), Psychotherapy in managed health care (pp. 264-278). Washington, D. C.: American Psychological Association.

Beutler, L. E., Kim, E. J., Davison, E., Karno, M., & Fisher, D. (1996). Research contributions to improving managed health care outcomes. Psychotherapy, 33, 197-206.

Cantor, D. W. (1997). Open letter to managed care. The APA Monitor, 26,
2.

Crane, D. R. (1995). Health care reform in the United States: Implications for training and practice in marriage and family therapy. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy, 21,* 115-125.

Langman-Dorwart, N., Wahl, R., Singer, C. J., & Dorwart, R. A. (1992). Managed mental health: From cost containment to quality assurance. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health, 19,* 345-353.

Lewin, R. A. (1996). *Compassion: The core value that animates psychotherapy.* Northvale, New Jersey: Jason Aronson.

Pipal, J. E. (1995). Managed care: Is it the corpse in the living room? An expose. *Psychotherapy, 32,* 323-332.

Sachs, K. (1996). Surviving managed care through...integrity. *Psychotherapy Bulletin, 31,* 39-40.

Steenbarger, B. N., Smith, H. B., & Budman, S. H. (1996). Integrating science and practice in outcomes assessment. A bolder model for a managed era. *Psychotherapy, 33,* 246-253.

MUSIC PERFORMANCE ANXIETY
AN OVERVIEW
OF
TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCES
IN
THERAPY, PSYCHOPHARMACOLOGY & BIO-FEEDBACK

John Hipple, Ph.D.
Senior Staff Counselor
Counseling & Testing Center
University of North Texas
PO Box 13487
Denton, TX 76203
817:565-2741
FAX 817:565-4376
E-Mail <hipple@dsa.unt.edu.>

In order to understand the specific manifestations of music performance anxiety, it is important to overview it's roots from a broader perspective. Anxiety disorders can be said to be either general or specific. That is to say that the symptoms can originate in a general form where the anxiety emanates from a broad based perspective as in panic anxiety or generalized anxiety (trait anxiety) or from a specific form such as fear of social situations, obsessions, or compulsions (state anxiety). Anxiety is comprised of emotional, cognitive, and physiologic elements. Prevalence rate studies set the life time incidence of all anxiety disorders as impacting 24% of the population. Social phobias which would include performance anxiety has a life time rate of 13%. Anxiety disorders occur twice as frequently in women as in men.

Incidence of anxiety among musicians has been investigated mostly among classical players and music students. For all practical purposes there have been no large scale studies of the incidence of anxiety or stage fright in other musical genres. One large survey of classical musicians in the U.S. found that 13% reported acute anxiety and 24% reported episodes of stage fright (Fishbein, 1988). Studies of classical musicians in the UK, Canada, and the Netherlands reported almost double these rates (van Klemenade and van Son, 1995).

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Any intervention requires a comprehensive understanding of the primary problem. The presentation of music performance anxiety varies from individual to individual with many possible sources of origins as well as focus. It is generally defined as the experience of persisting, distressful apprehension about a forthcoming performance. The distress is generally at an intensity level which is unwarranted given the individual's musical aptitude, training, and level of rehearsal (Salmon, 1990) Physiologic symptoms which can negatively influence a performance are often the focus of intervention efforts, but this approach may well over look important anxiety producing variables. Such factors as physical skill limitations, cognitive distortions, pedagogical problems, factors of technique or musicality, psychodynamic dissonance, genetic difficulties, social pressure, career demands, or biological problems may all influence degree of intensity and chronicity of the anxiety. To speak to these factors requires a more inclusive term than music performance anxiety; and Brodsky (1996) suggests that the label of Music Performance Stress Syndrome may be more appropriate from both a diagnostic as well as intervention perspective.

From a slightly different perspective, performance anxiety may be thought of as not being ready to perform and fearful of the consequences, ready to perform but having a fear of failure, or ready to perform and fearing failure as a result of general stress overload. The last example can be thought of as "blowing a fuse" or "straws that break the camels back". It is important to determine when the level of anxiety is at its highest, prior to or during the performance.

Assessment which leads to good intervention requires a comprehensive curiosity on the part of the therapist. Information must be gathered from areas not often considered when a performer presents with disrupting physiologic symptoms which occur just prior to or during a performance.

PREPARATION ANALYSIS

Many performers, especially students, are anxious because they are not adequately prepared by the time of the performance. For some the anticipatory discomfort is so intense that it interferes with the preparation process. Others may have selected or been assigned music which is realistically beyond their capabilities. They may have not rehearsed the material from a technical as well as an interpretative/creative perspective. They might not have been physically ready to perform; either from not being rested or from not having the endurance necessary to complete a performance. Of course from a strictly physical perspective, any slighting of preparation might include personality dynamics such as fear of success, fear of failure, or even rebellion. But without carefully helping the performer examine these basic rehearsal factors, the therapist might be mislabeling preparation anxiety as performance anxiety.

LIFE SPACE ANALYSIS

Intervention from the "straws that break the camel's back" perspective requires a more comprehensive examination of the performer's current and past life. This process involves talking through the decision making process of becoming and sustaining as a musician; development of performance goals; establishing expectations for quality of performance; quality of life outside music; influence of family, friends, and teachers on performance; personal and teacher/coach evaluation of quality of technique and musicality; and general state of health. Information gained in this manner will form a basis for assisting the individual to see how anxiety or stage fright might well be a result of general stress accumulation. As the performer reduces stress in other areas, there is a higher likely hood that anxiety or fear will not be exhibited during a performance (removal of any straw will save the camel's back).

From a cognitive perspective the performer is assisted to see how irrational and illogical conclusions are impacting thinking and behaving. As new conclusions and decisions are formulated, the anxiety will be reduced.

SELF TALK ANALYSIS

Many anxious performers engage in a wide range of negative thought or self talk patterns. They have developed a broad repertoire of negative self comments(some based on true events and some based on imaginary ones) which they run through their consciousness prior to and during a performance. What they are doing could be defined as "negative rehearsal" and if practice makes perfect they are well on their way to starring at failure. A basic intervention step is to have the performer identify this list of negative self talk as specifically as possible and then help them separate truth from fiction. This identification process helps the performer understand the process of negative self reinforcement. And more importantly begin to replace these negatives with more positive thoughts. As the performer becomes more practiced and comfortable with a set of positive reinforcers, the sense of tension and fear about performing is usually reduced.

BIOFEEDBACK

Various forms of biofeedback have been utilized in the treatment of anxiety and this includes performance anxiety. Assisting musicians to be more in touch with and in control of their bodies certainly has many benefits. Schwartz (1995) summarizes the uses of biofeedback and notes that treatment of anxiety does not fall in the list of disorders for which biofeedback is best suited. He does mention the specialized use of biofeedback for musicians suffering wrist and hand pain or cramping.

Biofeedback can be used to assist the learning of deep muscle relaxation techniques. Being able to relax one's body during times of stress and anxiety can provide a performer with some degree of relief.

One problem with biofeedback is that not all therapists have the equipment to provide such service. Another problem is that biofeedback as an adjunct to relaxation training requires a number of sessions to learn the necessary skills. For the impatient individual, these long term intervention approaches may not be acceptable.

Niemann (1993) reviews the literature in regard to the application of biofeedback to the problem of performance anxiety. He discusses in some depth the dearth of research and the problems with the existing studies, including his own, regarding the efficacy of the intervention. Typically the best results are found when biofeedback is used to facilitate the learning of relaxation skills and then is paired with a group discussion format.

PHARMACOLOGIC INTERVENTIONS

Music performance anxiety has a number of physical manifestations which will vary from individual to individual. However there are some common symptoms which, by themselves, can seriously disrupt a performance. Those most often of concern to musicians include: rapid heartbeat, sweaty palms, trembling hands, dry mouth, rapid and/or shallow breathing, and a sense of "butterflies" in the stomach. These physiological manifestations of psychological fear and anxiety compound the concern of the performer and create what seems to be almost insurmountable obstacles to a great creative effort.

Medication, especially among classical performers, seems to be the most popular form of intervention for anxiety and stage fright. Fishbein (1988) noted that 40% of those musicians reporting severe stage fright used medication while 25% used psychological counseling of some sort. In a more recent study by Bartel (1995) of Canadian classical musicians counseling and therapy were not even listed among the coping strategies used by performers.

Brandfonbrener (1990) provides an excellent overview of the use of medication in the treatment of performance anxiety. Because more common minor tranquilizers such as Valium or Xanex work primarily by sedation, the effects can include impairment of judgement, dulling of senses, and delayed responses. Over the years it was discovered that beta blocking drugs such a propranolol (Inderal) could relieve all of the symptoms of performance anxiety for most people. Beta blockers were originally developed to treat various forms of cardiovascular conditions. One of the beta blocker functions is to produce an adrenergic effect which moderates the autonomic nervous system's response to anxiety. These drugs are not truly anti-anxiety medications; consequently they have little effect on psychological fears.

Dose levels will vary from individual to individual. The typical amount used in a single dose to be taken one or two hours prior to a performance is 10-20 milligrams of Inderal. Some individuals may require up to 40 milligrams. It is best to have the performer try the medication prior to a performance to be certain that the amount prescribed is proper and that there are no unusual side effects. Obviously this medication should be prescribed and monitored by a physician and performers should not share their prescriptions. Vocalists seem to not be helped as much by beta blockers.

INTERVENTION SUMMARY

Once an appropriate assessment has been made the performer and therapist can jointly decide on a treatment plan which might include several approaches. Brodsky (1996) summarizes intervention research findings as indicating the overall effectiveness of cognitive-behavioral approaches. In fact these approaches are more effective in the long run than using medication. Brodsky goes on to note that almost every common counseling intervention used in the profession has been utilized by some therapist with some musician who presents with performance anxiety. However any therapy approach requires a personal commitment of time and money. It is quite clear that the use of prescribed medication seems more attractive to many musicians because it is easier to schedule one appointment with a physician than to schedule a number of talk sessions with a therapist. From a practical standpoint there is merit to attack the symptoms first, often with medicine, and then tie together pedagogical assistance and psychological approaches.

Brodsky (1996) suggests that a repackaging of possible interventions might be required. Some circles would call this advertising. It could be that any form of anxiety reducing therapy could be supplemented with music as a form of enhancement would be helpful and more intriguing for the musician client.

REFERENCES

Bartel, L.R. and Thompson, E.G. (1995). Coping with performance stress: A study of professional orchestra musicians in Canada. Quarterly Journal of Music Teaching & Learning. 5, 70-78.

Brandfonbrener, A.G. (1990). Beta blockers in the treatment of performance anxiety. Medical Problems of Performing Artists. 5,1,23-26.

Brodsky, W. (1996). Music performance anxiety reconceptualized. Medical Problems of Performing Artists. 88-98.

Fishbein, M. Middlesadt, S.E., et al (1988) Medical problems among ICSOM musicians. Medical Problems of Performing Artists. 3,1, 1-9.

van Klemenade, J., van Son, M., and van Heesch, N. (1995). Performance anxiety among professional musicians in symphonic orchestras: a self report study. Psychological Reports. 77, 555-562.

Niemann, B.D, Pratt, R., & Maughan, M. (1993). Biofeedback training, selected coping strategies, and music relaxation interventions to reduce debilitative musical performance anxiety. International Journal of Arts Medicine, 2, 7-15

Schwartz, M.S. (1995). Biofeedback a Practitioner's Guide. Second Edition. Guilford Press. New York.

Salmon, P.G. (1990). A psychological perspective on musical performance anxiety: a review of the literature. Medical Problems of Performing Arts, 5, 2-11.

Pastoral Care in Assumption College: Its Concept and Practice

Author: Dr. Conchita V. Umali

Biographical Information:

Dr. Conchita Venturina - Umali is presently the Dean of Academic Affairs of Assumption College. She is concurrently the Dean of the Graduate School. Formerly, she was the Guidance Director and Chairperson of the Behavioral Science Department and Dean of Liberal Arts in the same institution. She was the Guidance director of Adamson University before she joined Assumption College, Makati City, Philippines.

Dr. Umali is the past president of the Philippines Guidance and Personnel Association. At present, she is the PRO and contact person of IOTA PHI, a chapter of Chi Sigma Iota Counseling Honors Society. She is also a Board member of the Psychological Association of the Philippines and Career Development Association of the Philippines.

Assumption College aims to develop world class Filipino Catholic Women Professionals. As such all efforts are geared toward the attainment of that mission.

Mere Mane Eugenic Milleret, foundress of the Religious of the Assumption defined education as a process of human formation for social transformation. For her, to educate is to set a person free, to educate is to transform the world. Man, is viewed as someone who is in the process of becoming. Caring is an essential aspect of education. Mere Marie Eugenie emphasized in her educational pedagogy the need to Christianize the intelligence and form character. The educator is expected to be a role model. It is through her "being" that she becomes effective in her "doing". As a policy, the curriculum, the co- and extra curriculars and guidance program are expected to bring out the best in every student so that she can become an effective agent of change within her sphere of influence. The person is the most important factor in the teaching and learning process. Character is formed in the light of Gospel values.

What is Pastoral Care?

Pastoral Care is British in origins having its etymological roots in Christianity. It is something that encompasses all aspects of an individual's education other than the direct imparting of knowledge (Marland, 1974). From the perspective of the care giver, Best, Jaivis and Ribbins (1980) agree that Pastoral Care refers to the non-instructional aspects of the roles of teachers and others in schools. It includes guidance and counseling as specific aspects of pastoral care.

Hamblin (1978) described it as part of a teaching process which focuses not only on the intellectual, but social and emotional development of each child and may involve altering the learning environment to suit the needs of each student so that she can develop to his/her maximum potential. From a wider perspective, pastoral care is considered as an attempt by schools to be involved in the total. continuous development of a child, especially one who is most in need of extra care and effort (David & Cowley, 1980). This is the remedial aspect of Pastoral Care. Lang (1987) defines pastoral care as a development function which seeks to create a safe, secure environment in which one feels free to develop one's strengths while having courage enough to recognize his particular weaknesses and take action to cope with them.

In general, pastoral care is an institutionalized system of personalized education aimed at meeting the affective needs of students.

Pastoral care Is delivered through the various opportunities for contact between the teacher and student on a more informal basis and is in a non-academic setting. Group work is the main format. Inherent learning takes place with the sharing of ideas and experiences. Comraderie, acceptance of others as well as self-awareness and a sense of self-worth are promoted during group interaction.

1. Open communication in a non-threatening and friendly environment is an essential theme of pastoral care. Teacher's get to know each of their students personally, so as to facilitate a close monitoring of student progress and a regular assessment of student needs. Adult-adult relationship promoting a sense of responsibility and self-awareness in the students is encouraged.

2. Educational and Career Guidance

Students are helped In academic as well as career choices. Department chairpersons and coordinators take care of the academics while career choice is facilitated by the guidance counselors and class advisers.

3. Parental Involvement in School Activities

Home - school liaison is encouraged and maintained. Parents are involved through regular parent-teacher meetings, collaborative parent-student-teacher activities, sharing of parental expertise as well as participation in parent education courses. Regular, frequent reports of the student progress and needs are communicated to parents with helpful recommendations. Communication between parents and teachers regarding their child's development is encouraged and maintained.

Assumption College in all its programs. emphasizes the need to reflect the uniqueness of the student population it serves, thus each school program of pastoral care is essentially unique to the expressed needs of the student population.

Aims of Pastoral care: The Assumption Context

1. build

    1.1 positive self-concept of students by emphasizing positive attitudes

1.2 an effective classroom environment by creating a "safe environment" where students feel at ease to participate fully in the lessons

2. develop self-discipline by inculcating good habits, a sense of social responsibility and respect for others

3. encourage

 3.1 academic progress for all learners by detecting difficulties that may be interfering with the learning process and consequently helping them cope with the academic problems

 3.2 self-awareness by providing opportunities to explore their interests and abilities; express their creativity; explore their feeling, etc.

 3.3 career exploration

 3.4 effective peer relationships and build good rapport with students and their parents

4. help students

 4.1 deal more effectively with problems of daily living (the relationships with parents, friends and teachers)

 4.2 inculcate basic study habits and healthy attitudes in the pursuit of academic excellence

Deliver of Pastoral Care

Pastoral Care is delivered through the following:

A. PERFORM and d Campus Ministry / Theology

Curriculum (learning of personal and social skills)

 a.1 formal sessions in class

 a.2 Informal class (co- and extra curricular activities)

B. Student Counseling

The main focus Is on the individual student, his/her achievement and development

C. Academic Curriculum

teacher care permeates the academic curriculum in order for pastoral care to be effective

Opportunities for Personal Growth

1. building up self-esteem and self acceptance through the activities outside the formal classroom setting (extra-curriculars allow students to express talents and strengths in his own area self of competence)

2. turning talent toward service: the natural talents of each student are channeled towards the building up of the school community

Through the extra curricular activities, students can use their gifts for the community first and only in the process of serving the common good may they enjoy the rewards. They provide the students with opportunities to experience the satisfaction and sense of fulfillment that comes from enriching the lives of others.

3. developing a critical awareness: Extra curricular activities are excellent ways of developing an attitude of responsibility and accountability for their human choices and actions.

Pastoral care takes place within the extra-curricular activities through the Student Council, sports, games, clubs and societies, discipline, service groups and excursions, field trips, exposures and immersions.

B. Student Counseling is a one to one contact between a teacher and a student. It also takes on a more developmental aspect of guiding a student in decision-making and personal-social development on an individual basis. Teachers may refer students with adjustment problems for professions counseling.

C. Academic Curriculum

Every teacher in his / her subject area, must pay close attention to the needs of the students and to interact with them both on a formal and informal level. Teachers however, need to be trained to be creative in meeting personal and social education objective in their academics, classwork whatever their subject may be.

IN SERVICE TRAINING FOR THE PASTORAL ASPECT OF THE TEACHER'S ROLE

Teachers have intended the areas of in-service training in order to be effective in their role as frontline care givers in the school. Among the skills are:

1. group work approaches
2. Student-centered teaching methods

3. basic active listening and counseling skills
4. team leadership skills
5. need assessment skills
6. individual student profiling skills
7. concepts and skills of career guidance
8. care-giving skills

CONCLUSION

This individual and personalized approach towards pastoral care in school demands the total involvement of school administration, personnel, curriculum and programs. This comprehensive approach will definitely assist in the learning process, serve the goal of achieving academic excellence of an all-rounded kind and respect the gradual development and growth of young people.

The Homeroom Teacher's Role in Psychological Counseling at School

Wang Guodong

The assistant fellow and the vice-director of educational psychology department of Beijing Institute of Elementary Educational Research of Beijing Academy of Education Science who has nine-year educational research experiences in fields of School Psychology and Educational Psychology. And now is the member of the council of Beijing Educational Theory Society for the Young and Middle.

Introduction

In history of Chinese General Education it is recent years that attentions are paid to psychological counseling in school gradually by the administrative and teachers. Now more and more teachers, who have high rich experiences in teaching and student work tried to apply the school psychological counseling in their school work. Today there is not still any psychological service provided by school psychologist in China. But it does not mean that there is not psychological counseling at school. In retrospect to history of Chinese General Education we can find that the homeroom teachers play the important role in Psychological Counseling at School. Then the question is that who the homeroom teachers are ? A homeroom teacher is a leader, organizer and manager of one class who is the main body to carry on national educational policy, and is the effective aid of leaders in school to carry on educational and teaching plan in school, and to promote student development in all-round-way. A homeroom teacher is also the bridge among the school, family and society.

I. Structure of the homeroom teacher system

The development of the homeroom teachers in China can be traced from "proctor" in 1903 , who mainly took charge of moral education of whole school. After 1919 one director of grade for each grade appeared and then in 1938 one "class tutor " for each class. It is after New China establishment that "class tutor " was changed into "homeroom teacher".

Today in China there is one homeroom teacher for each class who is selected from the teachers of the class by the headmaster. Under leading of political instructor, the homeroom teachers mainly take charge of coordinating with other teachers of all subjects and giving the guidance of life and learning to the students in his own class. In the class there is one monitor who is the aid of the homeroom teacher and take responsibility for management of the class such as class discipline and class activities. And there are several committee members of each subject in the class. The homeroom teacher usually keeps on taking responsibility for the students in a class from their entering in school to graduating. Therefore, in primary school a homeroom teacher usually keeps as the homeroom teacher of one class for six years and in junior or senior middle school respectively for three years. The following diagram indicates the brief structure of the homeroom teacher system.

Headmaster

Political Instructor

Director of grade   Director of Teaching Research Group

Homeroom Teacher

Monitor

Committee Members of Subjects

Students

II. Requirements for the homeroom teachers

.They should have high qualities of politic, ideology and moral.
.They should love the teaching job and students.
.They should have wide and rich professional knowledge and educational theories.
.They must have the following professional abilities:

- assiduously study and construct teaching material
- understand and study their students
- organize educational activities
- speak and write in good and clear Chinese
- do educational research

III. The homeroom teacher's educational objectives

The homeroom teachers are not only teachers of subjects but also the leaders, organizers and educator of their class. They take responsibilities for their students' ideology, learning and life etc.. Daily management work of the class for the homeroom teachers are as following:
.Daily lives of students in class
.Ideology of students in class
.learning actives of students in class
.Discipline of students in class
.Out of class actives

.Managing cadres in class
.changing the students who lag behind

Based on the educational policy requirements, their main objective is to enable their students to develop morally, intellectually, physically and aesthetically and make them become as qualified socialist citizen with ideology, moral, civilization and discipline. It can be well understood by the following according to The Temporary Regulations of Primary School (draft).

Morally: to enable the students to be imbued with patriotic thinking, social morality, and to have good qualities such as honesty, bravery, spirit of solidarity and mutual aid, and abiding discipline;

Intellectually: to enable the students to obtain the basic ability of reading, writing and counting as well as the basic knowledge of society and nature;

Physically: to enable the students to have a strong constitution with a happy and gay heart, to have basic hygienic knowledge and hygienic habits;

Aesthetically: to enable the students to have a sense of beauty, a preliminary ability to appreciate the arts.

IV. The homeroom teacher' s responsibilities related to psychological counseling

Moral education

According to different age of students, the homeroom teachers educate their students to have good qualities such as honesty, bravery, spirit of solidarity and mutual aid, and abiding discipline through the following education contents :
.Patriotism education
.Loving collective
.Loving science
.Norm habits
.Temper the students' willpower
.Democracy and laws education

Comprehend and help the students who lag behind

The students who lag behind are defined as those who can not meet requirements of education objective of ideology, moral or learning. How to change these students is the main and important work of the homeroom teachers. The homeroom teachers usually take long time to help these students to find and solve their problem by "face to face talk" or by visiting family.

Guidance of the student Learning

More attentions are paid to every student's learning by the homeroom teachers. The homeroom teachers are required to know every student' whole situations of learning such as his academic records, learning attitude, interest and skill. They take responsibilities for stimulating the student's learning motivation and developing the students' learning ability and good learning habit as well as promoting their learning efficiency. The homeroom teachers are ready at all time to provide the aid with the students who need it.

Guidance of personal relationship

For the homeroom teachers, to find, solve and take precautions against the relationship conflict among the peers, between teacher and student or between parent and student is one of important work.

Guidance of psychological problems

Psychological problems like problems of adolescence, life press, test press and anxiety are concerned by the Homeroom teacher. They often help the student to solve their psychological problems.

Guidance of Physical and healthy

The homeroom teachers also take charge of training the students to form good habit of personal hygiene and correct the bad habit

Guidance of choosing school and career

The homeroom teachers usually give the students some advice on choosing the school to enter when the students graduate or give the guidance of career to the students who will graduate from the senior middle school.

V. Methods used in the homeroom teachers' work

Many kinds of methods are used by the homeroom teachers during their counseling work. It is widely acceptable fact that "loving student" is the most important foundation for the homeroom teachers to solve the student' s problem. The best method can not solve the simple problem of the students if the homeroom teaches have not the sense of loving student. The methods are mainly as following:

Face to face talk

Face to face talk is the main method often used by the homeroom teachers. When a student have the problem he may ask his homeroom teacher to have talk with him. and help him realize his problem and find its solution. The homeroom teacher is always open for all his students. In fact it is case that the homeroom teachers often decide who will need have talk with him. The talk place may be in the homeroom teacher' s office, in classroom or in campus.

One-help-one

When one student needs help or the homeroom teacher considers him need help, the homeroom teacher may let another student help this student. For instance, a top student may be asked by his homeroom teacher to help another student who lag behind by exchanging learning experience each other. The top student' work is usually under guidance of the homeroom teacher. It will not finished until the poor student changes.

Sample

The homeroom teacher uses one of historical persons or the student peers etc. as an sample for the students and ask them learn or imitate the sample.

Keynote class meeting

According to the need of students, the homeroom teacher set up a subject and let the class students discussion it among themselves. With the guidance of the homeroom teacher the student finally find the problem and its solution by themselves.

Group discussion

The students discuss with the homeroom teachers, good students or professional such as psychologist and educator on a certain subject.

Lecture

One of those such as teachers of the subjects , psychologist or educator is invited to give lecture to the students.

Visiting student family

The homeroom teachers regularly visit the student families and cooperate with family to provide students with various of aid.

The homeroom teacher system play an important role in Chinese General Education. Its effective system structure and diverse work methods make it possible for the homeroom teacher to know more about his students, and find and solve the problem of students in time. With the studying and applying of modern psychological counseling technology in their school work, we make sure that the homeroom teachers' work will be more effective.

References

.Wang Baoxiang (1990) Homeroom work in today. Geology Press.
.Wang Baoxiang (1992) Training course for Homeroom in primary school. Beijing,
.Hebei, Neimonggu, Shangxi and Tianjin Education Press
.Hu Junruo and Zhang Zhiyi (1987) Education and Think-How to become good homeroom teacher. Heilunjiang Education Press.
.Lu Tongde 'Changing the students who lag behind' Homeroom 1996.3
6.Qiu Chenfen 'Function and method of talking' Homeroom 1996.5

Video Games; A Potential New World.

Yuriko Matsushita (Osaka City University)
Koji Matsushita (Osaka City University, Kurokawa Internal Medicine)

The first author is a Ph.D. candidate student in clinical psychology at the Osaka City University. She works in many places, such as, the Public Family and Child Guidance Center, a mental hospital, a private counseling center and so on. Through these various kinds of jobs, she has tried to find an useful and clinical idea academically for therapy. The second author is also a Ph.D. candidate in the same department. He is working at the Kurokawa Internal Medicine as a clinical psychologist.

I . How video games have permeated into society.

Video Games do not have a very long history. The first video game was sold in 1983 by Nintendo in Japan. The main feature of this game was the ability to play at home. It was named the "Family Computer" in Japanese, which brought forth an image that it was an easy and familiar product.

Now video games have diversified and many kinds of software have been developed. Because of advanced high technology various games can be played. For example, fighter shooting games, boxing games, go-cart games, even role-playing games. The hardware of games has also diversified. Ranging from video game sets which use communication satellites, to hand-held portable games small enough to be placed on a key ring.

Video games are very popular from children to adults in Japan. But in particular video games are all the rage with children. During recess time at school they talk about only video games, like how to clear some scene of a game, what new software is out and so on. After school, children make plans with each other to decide at who's house they will play. Children who do not know video games feel difficulty to join them. Young adults who used to play video games during their childhood do not feel ashamed to enjoy video games even when they become adults. One factor why video games are enjoyable for adults is because the games themselves have become more complex and interesting enough to satisfy adults.

Furthermore not only video games themselves but also connected goods are also popular, for example, a doll of a character in a video game. The books to teach the strategy to play game are full of in a book store. Journals of video games are published regularly.

II .Review of opinions about video games.

Parents complain and worry about the bad effects video games have on children. Generally speaking, this negative assertion is held by some critics, too.

First, some bad effects of video games will be shown.

1.Physical effects.
  ·Asthenopia (Sano,1997)
  ·Weight gain (Murata,1989)
2.Psychological and emotional effects.
  ·Confusion between reality and fiction.
  ·Immature relationships with others.(Isolation) (Fukaya;1989)

The first opinion of psychological and emotional effects by video games was publicized by the mass media as if it was true, but there are no documents which confirm that confusion between reality and fiction exists. Some people object this opinion.

Murata(1989) showed three types of bad outcomes by devoting oneself to computers; 1.Game oriented types, 2.Infomaniac types, 3.Hacker types. He said that all three types are apt to connect with relationship disorders because they do not maintain direct relationships.

There is a person who has a neutral opinion about video games. Sakamoto(1993) criticized that the effect of video games by journalists was too intuitive and biased. He researched the relationship between aggression and video games and came to the conclusion that although the relationship between aggression and video games could not be denied, it is not as serious problem as the mass media thinks. The bad effect was recognized only after small children played a game, not adults. So it was difficult to say whether the bad effect of the video game was stronger than that of other activities.

Recently some people have been trying to defend the effects of video games. Yamashita(1995), who is a padagogist, sights some merits of video games as follows;

1.The ability to find a new world which is not uncomfortable for oneself.
2.The ability to play a game at one's own pace without anybody telling them what to do.
3.they do not have to play games that they do not like.
4.The ability to get rid of frustration and heal mental fatigue.

Nakahara(1995), who is a psychotherapist, reported four cases of play therapy where video games were used. She said that children who were distrustful of others, hated face to face situations and as a result had a lot of tension in direct relationships. They also had low self-esteem. For children like this, video games were safe, that is, video games never laughed or made fools of them and they could play again and again, even if they failed. Still more, video games were suitable for breaking off their immature aggression.

Kayama(1996), who is a psychiatrist, also reported some cases and experiences of herself. She used video games for treatment of severe compulsive obsession, mutism, schizophrenia and so on. She said it was impossible now to judge whether video games were effective for treatment or not. However she tried to state what she had noticed so far. She put her ideas into five points.

1.Video games are kind to a wounded heart.
2.They can play a game without worrying about their symptoms.
3.Video games have different rules and logic from real life.
4.Abstract concepts are also different in the video game's world.
5.Occasionally, some patients get well suddenly.

She insists that a video game is a new world which have original rules and logic -quite different from the real world. So the possibilities of this new world need to be thought about, for example, whether an experience in this world can develop an ego or not, if it is possible, what that ego is, etc. At the same time it cannot be said that the effect of video games for treatment manifests a simple progression like the ability to do something difficult in a game's world and then to be able to do same thing in the real world too.

Ⅲ .Our clinical cases which make us consider possibilities of video games.

We do not use video games themselves for therapy, but often the subject of about video games frequently comes up from clients. Through these experiences we came across, four cases which made consider what the effect of video games were and how we can use them for therapy.

Case 1. In this case, the counselor met a father who worried about his son. His son was in 5th grade at an elementary school, but for his age he was restless and too impulsive. He had many troubles at school. His parents lived separately and he lived with his father. During the early stages of counseling the father did not understand his son's impulsive behavior and always scolded him. After a while the father bought a used computer for himself to play games. Playing video games became their common hobby. Their favorite was a war simulation game. By playing the same game, the father was astounded at his son's ability to memorize the name of weapons, the kinds of fighters and so on. Gradually the father came to understand his son and communication between them become smoother than before. The father himself said " Video games are a part of my child world in my mind. People might say it is not grown-up, but I treasure it." These days the son asks his father to teach him how to play another game, which is to make a house. Both of them, together attempt to make a house in the game world.

Case 2. In this case the problem was a 17 year old boy's violence at home. After he had dropped out of high school, his father found a part time job for him. Since he started it, he showed signs of mental illness, for instance, speaking alone, compulsive washing, etc. At home he started to withdraw and never went outside. If he wanted to get something, he ordered his mother or his younger brother to buy it. From that time the counselor met his mother. She said that his intense violence had settled down, and yet he sometimes exploded into impulsive aggression by throwing down the TV. set, tearing his mother's skirt, or throwing a cup at his brother. Except for these episodes he had not done anything else. The mother always complained "He stays in his own room all day and does nothing except watch TV. or play games. He does not look like he is having any anxiety or trouble." The counselor asked her "What kind of game does he play?" Her answer was "I do not know." She seemed to have no interest about it. After several counseling sessions, she reported to me that her son liked a wrestling game. At the same time he recorded wrestling programs on video tape and watched them again and again. We noticed how he concentrated on wrestling. In time, he actually started to wrestle his brother at home. Several months later, he wanted to watch alive wrestling match at a stadium directly. Subsequently and he went to alive matches several times. One day his mother became aware that her son had completely lost his interest for wrestling and that his aggressive behavior disappeared. Now although it did not become possible for him to go out, his attitudes has changed and he is able to stay in a living room and playing video games with his brothers.

Case 3. In this case the counselor also met a mother who consulted about her youngest son. Her son did not have good relationships with his classmates and did not like to go to school. He was in 6th grade, but his immature personality and low self-esteem were remarkable. From what his mother said, the counselor thought the family dynamics were problematical. The father suffered from a mental disease. Although he loved his son very much, his emotions would suddenly change. He would loudly scold and slap his son. The son feared his father and stayed away from him. The mother became critical toward the father's relation to the son and thought it natural that her son hated his father. The mother herself seemed to have a very rigid personality. Through our counseling, we talked about many things and in one session a small episode made the counselor notice the changing of the family.dynamics. It was a session about one video game. The mother said delightfully "Now we, -my husband, my son and myself, are absorbed in a farm simulation game." In this game, they each became an owner of a farm, and brought up horses for racing. The son would brag to his father that his farm earned a lot of money and he would lend his father some money. The counselor was also surprised that the mother enjoyed the game. She had previously said that video games were stupid.

Case 4. The case of a high school student will be presented. He did not do anything but video games after school. His sister worried about his situation and talked about it during her counseling.(She had her own mental problem and came to the counseling at regular intervals.) According to her, their parents meddled with them, especially the son from his childhood. He was 17 years old but he could not have his own room. He shared one room with his parents. At his age, independence is big theme psychologically. His devotion to video games probably help him to escape from his parents' meddling and to get into his own world where his parents cannot enter. Incidentally he is pleased with role-playing games.

Ⅳ . Summary and suggestion about the possibility of video games

Through these cases we have pointed out four therapeutic effects of video games.

1. Video games are suitable for satisfying desires which are not allowed in daily life, for example, immature aggression. They can sometimes even help in real life situations, like in case 2.
2. Video games can be a plaything for the family. By using them like this, family dynamics and communication styles can change.
3. We can take roles which cannot actually be done in the real world. But this involves the risky aspect of not being able to stop playing that role after the game has ended and continue the role in the real world. This is the most important problem to think about when using video games for therapy.
4. Video games protect one's own world that nobody can break into. This point also has risks, for instance, devotion to the video games, withdrawal from society, and escaping from the real world which causes maladaptive problems to society.

We also want to show some hypothetical methods of using video games for counseling. There are two usages of video games indirectly or directly. In counseling using video games indirectly, we meet the family members except for the person who has the mental problem. In many cases parents complain that their children are devoted to video games. But his favorite video games are very good material for the counselor to understand symbolically his inner world. We are interested in video games which the children play at home, even if the parents do not have any interests. As the counselor asks more and more question about video games, the parents gradually loose their negative estimation of their children and also become interested in video games. At least now they understand video games have a significant meaning for their children. But since we cannot see the person who has the mental problem, we should check his personality, ego strength, family dynamics and so on.

In counseling using video games directly, we suggest some possibilities. First it is considered that playing video games has therapeutic effects. At the same time, the existence of a therapist is significant for therapy. By meeting clients directly and making sure of one's state, it is possible to choose, or to be chosen, a suitable game for one's problem.

Lastly we add that it seems that devoting oneself to video games alone is risky. We insist that the devotion, that is, the existence of others is very important. According to the cases we presented, we found the families who played video games together, the mother who were interested in the son's video games. In a counseling situation, of course, a counselor exists. This opinion does not mean that families should play video games together. A person can play a video game alone, but it is important that one can share the experiences from the video game's world, for example, by talking about the game with family members, exchanging the information of video games with friends and so on. We should understand what video games are, before we whether judge they are good or bad. Now it is necessary to study the possibilities of video games, a potential new world.

References

Shichiro Sano (1997), Video Games and Eyes, *Education and Medical Science*, (in Japanese) vol.525, 43-48.

Mitsunori Murata (1989), Computer and Children's Health, *Video Game Syndrome*, (in Japanese) 153-167.

Masashi Fukaya (1989), Children in The Age of Mass Media, *Video Game Syndrome*, (in Japanese), 200-223.

Akira Sakamoto (1993), Is It True that Video Games Have Bad Effects? -About Aggression and Social Maladapting in Social psychological research. *Modern Esprit*, (in Japanese) vol.312.

Tsuneo Yamashita (1995), *The World from Video Games' View*. (in Japanese)

Yoshie Nakahara (1989), The Pathology of Children Devoting to Video Games, *Video Game Syndrome*, (in Japanese), 1-30.

Rika Kayama (1996), *Video games and Healing* (in Japanese).

Career Counseling for New Chinese Immigrants:

Clinical Issues and Practical Recommendations

by

Robert C. Chope, Ph.D.
Professor of Counseling
San Francisco State University

and

Fan Fang, M.S.
Career Counselor

Presented by Robert Chope

San Francisco has been a major gathering place for Chinese immigrants in the United States since the 19th century; the Chinese immigrant population in San Francisco has doubled since 1965 (Lee, 1983). With the New Immigration Act of 1991, more Chinese immigrate to the States and a large proportion of them settle in San Francisco.

The degree with which immigrants develop satisfaction with their new environment is often dictated by the acculturation process. There are five sources of stress that affect the acculturating group (Berry et al, 1985):

1. Physical stress: The group must adjust to a new physical environment with a different climate and different housing.
2. Biological stress: The group may have to change their diet and is certainly lacking immunity from many diseases.
3. Social stress: The group will be affected by changes in employment, education and ethnicity status.
4. Cultural stress: The group will encounter new politics, new language, new religions and new economics.
5. Psychological stress: As a result of the above stressors, the group may have their values, beliefs, attitudes and identities changed.

Unlike others, Chinese immigrants often obtain support from the local Chinese community in facilitating the adjustment to the physical and biological stressors. There is considerably less community support in relating to the other stressors. What has been found to be consistently true is that career adjustment in the form of career reconstruction plays an important role in the acculturation process and in reducing social, cultural and psychological stress. In fact, Lee (1983) found that downward mobility or status inconsistency due to less than satisfactory employment led to the Chinese immigrants low self esteem, insecurity and depression. Many of the immigrants had a prior professional status and lost it when they came to the States. There appeared to be somewhat less depression among those immigrants who were able to find work that they had some familiarity with.

It can be presumed that there is and will continue to be a vast need for career counseling services among this population for some time to come. Yet there is virtually no literature that speaks to the intertwining of career reconstruction with immigration. The purpose of this article is to integrate cultural factors and career development theories into a clinical process framework that will help practitioners to counsel and assist Chinese immigrants with the career reconstruction process.

1. Beginning Assumptions

Career reconstruction is used to define the creation of a new career when there is little or no possibility of using one's past experience, education, or training. It is certainly a term that can be applied to individuals who have been physically disabled and it can be applied to individuals who have a trade that is no longer needed by the culture. Keypunch operators, blacksmiths and milk wagon drivers represent the latter. It is also a term that can be used to describe the career counseling process for new immigrants. Many immigrant professionals will never be able to apply their crafts and professional trades, they will be forced to develop entirely new careers. Unfortunately these new reconstructed careers, more often than not, result in downward mobility and that leads to some of the psychological stresses noted earlier.

The literature that speaks to counseling Chinese clients (Sue & Sue, 1990; Alber, 1983; Leong & Kim, 1991) relies almost exclusively on suggestions that are based on cultural explanations. These may be quite inappropriate or even biased against new Chinese immigrants. The Chinese immigrants' background is complex; simple interpretations are not sufficient to enhance the counseling process. For example, in mainland China, due to the dramatic social and political change, the traditional patterns of social relations that espoused filial piety and respect for elders are no longer taken into account by younger generations. The more traditional belief in moral and knowledge fulfillment through education has been replaced by a belief in quick benefits through speculation. In Hong Kong and Taiwan, older generations will preserve traditional values while the younger generation rejects conservatism and tradition. Younger immigrants crave autonomy, self expression, self assertion and individually oriented achievement (Lee, 1983). When a Chinese immigrant seeks career counseling, he or she can not be attended to as a 3rd or 4th generation Chinese-American.

While studies have shown that Chinese people were reluctant to use counseling and mental health services (Atkinson et al 1978; Sue & Sue, 1974; Tseng & Wu, 1985) career counseling appears to be an exception because it is perceived as having little to do with mental health issues. Still, most Chinese immigrant clients terminate the relationship after the first meeting. While a variety of reasons have been given for this fact, including the immigrants lack of assertiveness or cooperativeness, it is the thesis of this paper that quick termination is often due to the failure to establish a trusting and safe relationship.

Chinese people are very group oriented. After identifying with a group, they will conform to the behavioral norms of the group. They express their beliefs and emotional conflicts only to those who are considered to be part of the in group. Therefore an out group counselor will have little impact because the Chinese immigrant client will seldom risk "losing face" to culturally different or out group counselor. Thus, the immigrants either avoid in depth contacts or only trust authority figures. To provide career reconstruction services to these clients, the following approaches need to be considered:

A. It is crucial for the counselor to articulate the client's cultural identity. Ethnic identified clients prefer ethnically similar or culturally sensitive counselors more than the biculturally identified or mainstream identified counselors (Atkinson et al, 1990). Lack of ethnic congruence between the group status of the client or counselor may necessitate a referral.

B. It is an advantage for the counselor to speak the client's dialect, although working with an interpreter can be all right (Lee, 1983). Counselors need to be aware that the language barrier can be used as a defense mechanism by the client, an excuse for avoiding change, challenge and independence. The barrier may also hinder the development of a trusting and safe relationship; weak communication adds to stress and anxiety (Dornic, 1985). To the new Chinese immigrants, nothing is more alienating than communicating personal affairs in a second language. A counselor's attempt to have the client communicate in English identifies the counselor as an out group member and typically terminates the counseling relationship after the first session. Immigrant clients may use the language barrier to test the counselor's credibility.

C. The counselor must be willing to answer any of the client's career related questions at the first interview even though the counselor may not know what the client wants. These seemingly desultory and innocent questions may be part of the client's testing of the counselor's credibility. Nondirected or indirected clinical approaches may reflect upon the counselor as an out group member, unwilling to help the immigrant client.

2. Working Alliance

There are two stages to the career reconstruction of immigrant clients, a preparatory stage and an establishment stage (Krau, 1983). The preparatory stage is often the most troubling. According to Super (1969), as people develop, they compare their view of themselves with occupations they enter, trying to find those that are congruent with their view. In the collectivist Chinese society, this model is still applicable, although the self view is modified by the group's ideology. Self assertion and individual achievement occur only when there is a reference or role model that can be consistent with the ideological framework.

In their own country, Chinese people have the appropriate framework and environment to explore their career choices. In a new country, the environment and reference frames no longer exist. The immigrants are exposed to many more choices, have little information about these choices and encounter new and different employment processes such as resumes, use of the internet, voice mail, civil service tests, exams, licensing restrictions, stress interviews and the like. Moreover, they are no longer able to compare their group oriented view to the references around them. Indeed, a former physician may see a former college professor washing dishes in a restaurant. Too, developmentally they may have been in a career maintenance stage prior to immigration; thereafter they are most likely to begin a new career exploration stage consistent with Super's (1969) developmental career theory.

Reentering the exploration stage of career development for many of the immigrants results in disappointment, confusion and depression. According to Maslow (1954) everyone has basic needs that are arranged in hierarchical importance from physiological to self actualization needs. When lower level needs are met, higher order need fulfillment can be pursued. Chinese immigrants came to the U.S. with the expectations that their needs would be met whether they were lower order (economic) or higher order (political). Most did not plan on a career change and did not know that they might fail to fulfill their expectations because of the career change.

Downward career mobility prevents the immigrants from pursuing unmet needs. For example, a professor from China working in a Chinatown restaurant may earn tenfold what s/he earned in Beijing. But the professor never has the time to pursue the former higher order scholarship. Antithetically, a successful accountant from Hong Kong, escaping the shadow of 1997, worries about how to maintain an accountant's lifestyle by earning three times less of a salary in the U.S. Immigrants may find that their new life is not what they anticipated. Disappointment can lead to confusion from a distorted self image. The client has a new experience of floundering in a quagmire of identity issues both vocational and cultural. The client does not know whether s/he is a professional person or a laborer. The confusion may lead to avoidance where the immigrant refuses to learn the new culture and explore new but different career opportunities. S/he may live in a Chinese neighborhood and stay in work requiring little or no English.

The confusion can ultimately lead to clinical depression, guilt and self blame. Some of the Chinese immigrants repress their negative feelings and develop a coping mechanism whereby they believe that their suffering will be exchanged for a better life for their children. Regardless, without assistance, the depression will remain and these clients will probably never return to their former personal and career development life stage.

3. Counseling Process

Chinese immigrants expect a counselor to engage in a problem solving approach; they hope the counselor will fix their problems. Actually, Williamson's (1934) trait and factor career counseling approach initially appears to meet these client needs quite well. But this theoretical approach is based on American culture as are most other popular approaches. They are not applicable for some of the following reasons.

Chinese immigrants are educated far differently than American students. A student from Hong Kong who never passed high school physics may do extremely well in college physics in America. A factory manager who supervised a 5000 worker factory in China may not have the type of leadership and management skills that an American manager would expect. This is because the Chinese manager, who might even be timid, held the position as the result of a family member's status as a high Party official.

Accordingly, new counseling methods with a different framework need to be developed. Several recent approaches have some components that may work for the immigrants. Rounds and Tracey (1990) have a four step information processing approach that postulates person-environment congruence through information processing skills. This technique focuses upon teaching the client problem solving. It does demand that the counselor understand that Chinese people use information not because it works but rather because it fits their ideological framework. In addition, Chinese clients have great respect for authority and if the counselor is perceived as an in group authority, the client may be willing to engage in working assiduously (Triandis, 1982). The approach is quite directive involving the development of plans based upon goal setting and working toward taking action on those plans.

Krumboltz' (1976) theory can also work because it perceives career development as a learning process. Individuals will develop those skills that have produced positive outcomes. This self observation generalization theory fits in nicely with a collectivist culture's ideological framework. While the immigrants may not be exposed to many of the occupations that exist in America, they can certainly make decisions on the basis of the universal impact of positive reinforcement.

Finally, cognitive therapy (Beck, 1976; Meichenbaum, 1977), although it is not developed as a career development theory, appears to be quite effective with its information processing sequences. It emphasizes helping clients to challenge negative and irrational beliefs, develop alternatives, and remove themselves from the depression loop caused by their unsatisfactory career reconstruction. By teaching clients to question beliefs, the counselor automatically takes on a supportive and authoritative mantel. Chinese people believe that only the person with credibility is able to confront others with structured reasoning. The cognitive approach not only establishes the therapeutic alliance, it also helps to confront the clients negative thoughts.

The cognitive techniques can be used in conjunction with the other already mentioned theories and help to establish a safe space to explore, process and experience success. For example, if a client is concerned about how a language problem will take away from performance, the counselor may question this concern as unfounded because the client assumes that all interviewers look down upon people who do not speak as fluently as natives. In fact, the language defense might be a part of the client's avoidance processing. The counselor can begin to understand the negative belief system and replace it with healthier and more productive thoughts.

4. Summary

Helping new Chinese immigrants with career reconstruction is a most difficult task. Many formal studies address only the awareness of cultural differences in counseling but fail to provide practical recommendations, not to mention goal oriented counseling. When working with the new immigrants the counselor needs to do the following:

1. Establish in group authority by developing a trusting and safe therapeutic alliance,
2. Understand the client's needs and develop realistic goals for the client and serve to reduce social, cultural and psychological stress,
3. Teach the client information processing and networking skills,
4. Apply appropriate directive counseling techniques,
5. Reinforce the client's working on a career reconstruction, career development plan.

References

Alber, R.D. (1983). The intercultural sensitizer or cultural assimilator: A cognitive approach. In D. Landis & R.W. Brislin (Eds.), *Handbook of intercultural training*. New York: Pergamon.

Atkinson, D.R., Maruyama, M. & Matsui, S. (1978). The effects of counselor race and counseling approach on Asian-Americans perceptions of counselor credibility and utility. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 25, 76-83.

Atkinson, D.R.; Jennings, R.G. & Liongson, L. (1990). Minority student's reasons for not seeking counseling and suggestions for improving services. *Journal of College Student Development,* 31, 342-350.

Beck, A.T. (1976) *Cognitive therapy and the emotional disorders.* New York: International Universities Press

Berry, J.W., Kim, U., Minde, T. & Mok, D. (1985). *Acculturative stress in Canada.* Paper presented at the annual conference of the Canadian Psychological Association.

Dornic, S.M. (1985) Immigrants, language and stress, In L.H. Ekstrands's *Ethnic minorities and immigrants in a cross-cultural perspective.* Lisse: Swets & Zeitlinger.

Glenn, E.N. (1983) Split household, small producer and dual wage earner: An analysis of Chinese American family strategies. *Journal of Marriage and the Family.* 45, 35-46

Krau, E. (1983) How important is vocational success to the overall satisfaction of immigrants? *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 13, 473-495.

Krumboltz, J.D., Mitchell, A.M. & Jones, G.B. (1976). A social learning theory of career selection. *The Counseling Psychologist.* 6, 71-81.

Lee, E. (1983). Assessment and treatment of Chinese immigrant families. *Journal of Psychotherapy & the Family.* 6, 99-122.

Leong, F.T. & Kim, H.H. (1991). Going beyond cultural sensitivity on the road to multiculturalism: Using the intercultural sensitizer as a counselor training tool. *Journal of Counseling and Development.* 70, 112-118.

Maslow, A.H. (1954). *Motivation and personality.* New York: Harper & Row.

Meichenbaum, D. (1977). *Cognitive-behavior modification: An integrative approach.* New York: Plenum.

Rounds, J.B. & Tracey, T.J. (1990). From trait and factor to person environment fit counseling: Theory and process. In W.B. Walsh & S.H. Osipow (eds.). *Career counseling.* Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum.

Sue, D.W. & Sue, D. (1990) *Counseling the culturally different-Theory and practice.* New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Sue, S. & Sue, D.W. (1974) MMPI comparisons between Asian-American and non-Asian students utilizing a student health psychiatric clinic. *Journal of Counseling Psychology.* 21, 423-427.

Super, D.E. (1969). Vocational development theory: Persons, positions and processes. *Counseling Psychologist.* 1, 2-9.

Triandis, H.C. (1972). *The analysis of subjective culture.* New York: Wiley.

Tseng, W. & Wu, D.Y.H. (1985). *Chinese culture and mental health.* London: Academic Press.

Williamson, E.G. (1939). *How to counsel students: A manual of techniques for clinical counselors.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Separation-Individuation Process of Taiwan High-School Students and Its Implications in Counseling

Yung-Jong Shiah[a], Wai-Cheong Carl Tam[b], and Shih-Kuang Chiang[c]
Chung Yuan Christian University
Taiwan

[a]Graduate student of the Institute of Psychology at Chung Yuan Christian University.
[b]Associate Professor of the Department of Psychology at Chung Yuan Christian University.
[c]Clinical Psychologist at Yu Li Veterans Hospital, Taiwan, and graduate student of the Instituted of Psychology at Chung Yuan Christian University.

ABSTRACT

The separation-individuation process is an important developmental process of the individual self, and disturbances in this process may often lead to the manifestation of borderline personality symptoms. Previous studies indicate that the psychological developmental stages of the Chinese children and adolescents in Taiwan occur at an older age compared to that of the American Society. This study investigates the separation-individuation process in 522 high-school students in Taiwan by using a self-report questionnaire, which includes the 39-item Separation-Individuation Process Inventory (S-IPI) and a 9-item self report assessing borderline personality symptoms. Results indicate that there is a significant correlation between the scores on the S-IPI and the borderline personality symptoms self report. In addition, there is no significant difference on the S-IPI scores between the male and female students. The cultural differences in the separation-individuation process between the Chinese and the American populations, as well as the validity of the S-IPI for the Chinese population, are discussed. The implications of the issue on separation-individuation in counseling are also discussed.

Since Mahler,Pine & Bergman(1975) systematically proposed a theory of Separation-individuation (S-I) regarding human psychological development,many studies have been conducted to investigate this issue. According to Mahler et al.(1975),an individual experiences normal autistic phase and normal symbiotic phase before entering into S-I process. This process, which consists of 4 stages, begins at about 4 or 5 months after birth and lasts until at age 3. The 4 stages are the differentiation subphase, the practicing subphase, rapprochement, and the phase of libidinal object constancy.

Research indicates that the psychopathology of borderline personality disorder might involve the S-I process. Christenson & Wilson (1985) developed a S-I Process Inventory and administrated it to a group of 20 borderline personality disorder subjects and a group of 180 normal controls. Test results showed significant group difference with the borderline personality disorder group had the higher scores. The research results of Dolan , Evans & Norton(1992) were compatible with that of Christenson et al. (1985).On the other hand, Levine, Green, & Millon(1986) developed the S-I Test of Adolescence and obtained satisfactory results on its validity. Coonerty (1986) administrated the Rorschach Inkblot Test to groups of borderline and schizophrenic patients respectively. The former showed more S-I themes than the latter. The results of other studies also supported the theory of the S-I process(e.g., Holmbeck & McClanahan , 1994 ; Kroger & Green , 1994 ; McClanahan & Holmbeck , 1992 ; Levine , 1994 ; Levine & Saintonge , 1993).

Regarding the gender difference in the S-I process, research results are inconsistent. For example, McChrystal et al.(1994) showed that females had significant fewer hindrances in the S-I process than that of males. However, Allen & Stoltenberg(1995) obtained no significant gender difference between the scores of their sample.

Culture might be a mediating factor on the S-I process. That is ,people of different cultures might have different S-I processes. Both Li(1992) and Slote(1992) argued that the Eastern countries, such as China, Japan, Korea, and Vietnam, have a kind of integrated culture under the Confucian influence and thus the family is the basis of the individual ego structure and self image. This is quite different from the Western countries , which emphasize individualism. Tang(1992) proposed that the S-I process reflects a cultural difference as does the dominance of reaction formation as a defense found among Chinese . As a result, comparing to Western people, Chinese people might have a slower and more unstable S-I process,in addition to having more individuation anxiety.

Daniels(1990), Holmbeck & Wandrei(1993) and Schultheiss & Blostein(1994) proposed that unsuccessful S-I process might lead to adolescents' disruptive behavior, dissatisfaction toward family and society ,despair, or suicide. Applegate(1988) used the theory of S-I process in investigating the process of marital psychotherapy.Schneider (1992) suggested that counselors provide emotional support to unsuccessful S-I patients. It is clear that the S-I process has important implications in counseling.

This study investigates the S-I process of Taiwan high-school students.It is hypothesized that (1) there is a correlation between the S-I process and borderline personality symptoms,(2)there is no gender difference in the S-I process, and (3) the S-I process of the Chinese in Taiwan is different from that of the U.S.

Method

Subject

522 (age 15 to 19, M=16.7, SD=0.028) high school students were recruited from Changhua Boys' and Changhua Girls' High Schools in Taiwan in which 283 were males (age 15 to 19 , M=16.61 ; SD=0.037) and 239 were females (age 15 to 19 ,M=16.72 ; SD=0.042) .

Material and Procedure

This study utilized a self-report questionnaire,which includes the 39-item S-I Process Inventory (S-IPI) developed by Christenson et al. (1984) and a 9-item self report assessing borderline personality symptoms. The S-IPI was a Chinese translation version of the original English version with the permission of its original authors. The Chinese version of the S-IPI have been pretested to make sure that the translation items are clear. The questionnaire also contains 2 items assessing the subjects' honesty of the responses. Subject responded on a 10-point scale for the S-IPI and a Yes-No format for the other items .In order to enhance the cooperation of the subjects,they were first told that they had to complete a questionnaire on interpersonal relations. On completion , they were debriefed on the purpose of this study.

Results

The means and standard deviations of the scores of the subjects on the S-IPI and the borderline personality symptoms receptively are shown in Table1.

Table1

Means and Standard Deviations of the scores on S-IPI and borderline personality sympt

	Overall Sample (n=522)		Male subjects (n=283)		Female subject (n=239)	
Scale	**M**	SD	**M**	SD	**M**	SD
S-IPI	176.36	37.48	177.10	36.44	175.51	38.72
borderline personality symptoms	2.86	1.65	2.88	1.61	2.85	1.70

The correlations between the scores on the S-IPI and the borderline personality symptoms were shown in Table2. The correlations for the overall sample ,male and female subjects within the sample were significant respectively.

Table2

Correlations between the scores on the S-IPI and borderline personality symptoms

	Overall (n=522)	Male Subjects (n=283)	Female Subjects (n=239)
Correlation	.496**	.456**	.538**

**p < .01

The means and standard deviations of the scores of the S-IPI and borderline personality symptoms of the subjects who endorsed 5 or more borderline personality symptoms(called the borderline symptoms group ,in which the subjects might have the diagnosis of borderline personality disorder) were shown in Table3.

Table3

Means and Standard Deviations of the Scores on the S-IPI and borderline personality symptoms of the borderline symptom group

borderline symptom group	Overall subjects (n=81)		Male subjects (n=46)		Female subjects (n=35)	
Scale	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
S-IPI	208.8	33.6	208.5	33.81	209.2	33.81
borderline personality symptoms	5.65	.91	5.52	.69	5.83	1.12

The correlations between the scores on the S-IPI and the borderline personality symptoms of the borderline symptoms group were shown in Table4. The correlations for the whole group,male and female subjects within that group were significant respectively.

Table4

Correlations between of the scores on the S-IPI and the borderline personality symptom of the borderline symptoms group

	Overall sample (n=81)	Male subjests (n=46)	Female subjects (n=35)
Correlation	.341*	.388**	.327*

*p < .05

**p < .01

Results also showed that there is no significant difference for the S-IPI scores between male and female subjects,both for the overall sample(t=-0.48,p<0.05) and the borderline symptoms group (t=-0.21,p<0.05).

Discussion

Results of the overall sample indicate that there is a significant correlation between the scores on the S-IPI and the borderline personality symptoms. This is compatible with the results of the studies of the previous research(e.g., Christenson et al.,1985; Dolan et al.,1992). This supports both the theory of S-I process and the validity of the Chinese version of the S-IPI. Nevertheless ,more research on the validity of the Chinese version of the S-IPI still is needed.

Results of this study also showed that there is no significant difference on the S-IPI scores between the male and female subjects both for the overall sample and the borderline symptoms groups. This is compatible with the results of some of the previous studies(e.g. ,Allen & Stoltenberg,1995). However ,since the gender difference of the S-I process is a rather complicated issue, further study is needed to clarify the present situation.

If the sores of the S-IPI of the this study are compared with that of the Christenson & Wilson's (1985), it is found that the Taiwan sample obtained somewhat higher scores(M=176.4, SD=37.48) than that of the U.S. (M=120.6,SD=40). Culture difference between the Chinese and the Americans might be one possible explanation of the differences of the S-I process of the people of these two nations. Direct observation of the S-I process in different cultures might be one of the future research directions.

Although the subjects were recruited from 2 Taiwan high schools, there exists no evidence of any specifics of this sample. Therefore the results of this study might generalize to represent the whole Taiwan high school student population. Further study might include students from other high schools in Taiwan to investigate the validity of this generalization.

If different cultures have different S-I processes, then the issue of utilization of the theory of S-I in counseling must be handled with special care. That is ,the counseling techniques which are useful or issues needed to be dealt with in one culture might not be applicable in another culture. For example ,as the Taiwan high school students have higher scores on the S-IPI than that of the U.S.,one cannot infer directly that the former has more S-I problems then the latter without consideration of the S-I difference in different cultures .Thus the application of counseling techniques developed in one particular culture to another culture must be dealt with extreme caution and thoughts.

REFERENCES

Allen ,S. F.& Stoltenberg , C. D. (1995) .Psychological separation of older adolescents and young adults from their parents : An investigation of gender differences. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 73*,542-546.

Applegate , J. S.(1988). Alone together : an application of separation-individuation theory to conjoint marital therapy. *Clinical Social Work Journal , 16*(4), 418-429.

Christenson , R. M. & Wilson , W. P.(1985). Assessing pathology in the separation-individuation process by an inventory : A preliminary report. *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease, 173*(9), 561-565.

Coonerty ,S. (1986) . An exploration of separation-individuation themes in the borderline personality disorder. Annuel Meeting of the Society for Personality Assessment (1985,Tampa ,Florida). *Journal of Personality Assessment, 50*(3), 501-511.

Daniels, J. A. (1990) . Adolescent separation-individuation and family transitions. *Adolescence, 25*(97), 105-116.

Dolan, B. M., Evans, C. & Norton, K. (1992). The Separation-Individuation Inventory association with borderline phenomena. *The Journal of Nervovs and Mental Disease, 180*(8), 529-533.

Holmbeck, G. N. & McClanahan G. (1994) .Construct and content validity of the Separation-Individuation Test of Adolescence : A reply to Lenvine. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 62*(1), 169-172.

Holmbeck, G. N. & Wandrei, M.L. (1993) .Individuation and relational predictor of adjustment in first-year college students. *Journal of Counseling Psychology 40*(1), 73-78.

Kroger ,J.& Green ,K. (1994) . Factor analytic structure and stability of the Separation-Individuation Test of Adolescence. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 50*(5), 772-785.

Levine ,J. B. (1994) . On McClanahan and Holmbeck's construct validity study of the Separation-Individuation Test of Adolescence. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 62*(1), 166-168.

Levine ,J. B., Green , C. J. & Millon ,T (1986) .The Separation-Individuation Test of Adolescence. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 50*(1), 123-137.

Levine ,J. B.& Saintonge ,S. (1993) .Psychometric properties of the Separation-Individuation Test of Adolescence within a clinical population. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 49*(45), 492-507.

Li, M.(1992). Cultural difference and ingroup favoritism : A Comparison of Chinese and American. *College Students Bulletin of Academia Sinica, 73*, 153-190.

Mahler , M., Pine , F. & Bergman , A. (1975). *The psychological birth of the human infant.* New York : Basic Books.

McChrystal , J. & Dolan , B. (1994) . Sex-role identity and separation-individuation pathology. *Counseling Psychology Quarterly, 7*(1), 25-34.

McClanahan ,G. & Holmbeck ,G. N. (1992) .Separation-individuation, family functioning, and psychological adjustment in college students : A construct validity study of the Separation-Individuation Test of Adolescence. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 59*(3), 468-485.

Schneider ,S. (1992) . Separation and individuation issues in psychological rehabilitation. *Adolescence, 27*(105), 137-144.

Schultheiss , D. P. & Blustein , D. L. (1994) . Role of adolescent-parent relationships in college student development and adjustment. *Journal of the Counseling Psychology, 41*(2),248-255.

Slote, W.H. (1992) Oedipal ties and the issue of the separation-individuation in traditional Confucian societies. *Journal of the American Academy of Psychoanalysis, 20*(3), 435-453.

Tang, N. M. (1992) .Some psychoanalytic implications of Chinese philosophy and child-rearing practices. *Psychoanalytic study of the child, 47*, 371-389.

Rise to the Challenge of Science to Family

Deng Weizhi

Prof. Deng Weizhi is Director of Sociology Institute, Shanghai University, Chairman of Shanghai Family Reaserch Society, and Vice Chairman of China Sociology Society.

Every scientific and technological progress acts on human family. There is undoubtedly such an action, whether it is big or small, positive or negative, direct or indirect, straight or curve.

The entrance of science and technology into family well equips household chores, and shortens the time spent on such works. In recent years, the decrease of housework time has been an irresistible tread in Chinese urban and rural areas, and brought about correspondingly the increase of the time spent in society, which in turn acts on family.

The entrance of science and technology into family makes if possible for people to do office work or business at home. When the time for doing works at home increases, the time for going out will be decreased.

The entrance of science and technology into family makes birth control more applicable and birthrate lowered. And, science and technology cut off the connection between sexual behavior and child-bearing, and lash the traditional ides about sex. Pre-marriage and extramarital sexual behaviors grow rapidly in number.

The entrance of science and technology into family makes household computers connect with the world through information expressway. This turns the idea of "Keeping the world in heart" into reality and the saying "a scholar knows the world's affairs without stepping outside his gate "into a possibility, and thus causes a dramatic change in people's behavioral patterns.

As science and technology are widely applied in society, sometimes they exert influence of one kind or another on family without entering directly into it. When science and technology enter recreation and sports, they add appeal to such activities, and thus repress the recreational function of family. When people go to the cinema, they are not at home; when they go to play golf, they are not at home.

Sometimes science and technology do not enter directly into family or the social lie relating to family. However, as science and technology change the life of the entire society, the family, as a cell of the society, is inevitably influenced by society, in the final analysis, by science and technology. For instance, the development of energy technology turns cities and towns into "places having no night". With the prolonged night life, the daily schedule which advocates "begin work at sunrise and rest at sunset" is altered.

Moreover, some kinds of science and technology neither enter directly into family, nor act directly on social life, but they change the economic condition of the whole society and the family as well. For instance, with the developed economy and well-off people, families will naturally arrange their living according to "well-to-do: plans.

I am no technologist. I highly affirm the counteraction of ideology. Otherwise, I would not write any articles. But, I believe in the doctrine of "science first", in the doctrine of "productivity standard first", and the same attitude applies to family problems.

Science and technology challenge and change thousands of Chinese families.

Science and technology change the family function which is the most positive and active element in family . Family functions are multidimensional, and many of them are transferring from family to society. The consumption function of family is transferring from family to society. The family reunion in Spring Festival holidays was in the past a great concern of people of various circles, but many denizens now have their "dinner on the lunar New Year's Eve" in restaurant, not at home. previously, children were educated in private school at home, but, in the last scores of years, not only the school-age children go to the school, but the preschool children also go to the nursery or kindergarten, not the private school at home. Some children go home once in a week, and even a mouth. The time they stay at home is shorter than the students. The old people do not stay at home to look after the house, but go to the university for the aged. Certainly, some of the family functions are strengthened, but the tendency is that they are on the whole weakened.

Science and technology transform the family structure in China. All through the ages, the Chinese advocated "three or four generations living in the same house" the incorporated family. Today, the number of incorporated families decreases, but that of the unclear families have increased 20-30% in the past half century. Although science and technology have one facet that tightens the family structure, as a whole, they make that structure loosened. The family structure in China Becomes Divided.

Science and technology changes, the Chinese feelings for family ties. Their idea about child-bearing is also in change. What prevailed in the past was "more sons, greater happiness", but now what people attach importance to is family planning. There are in society "over-birth" phenomena and volunteers for "lifelong sterility" as well. The number of those who practice "over-birth" decreases, and that of those volunteers is on the rise. Such rise is closely related to the above-mentioned breaking up of the connection between sexual behavior and child-bearing. The Chinese viewpoint about marriage also changes. In the past, people often close spouse among cadres, servicemen and overseas Chinese, but they now prefer to choose spouse among professionals or experts. This is related to the upgrade of the position of science and technology. Following the increasingly evident effects of science and technology and the promotion of the social status of science and technology workers, the number of the people who prefer to choose spouse among professionals or experts naturally increases. Other ideas concerning the feelings for family ties, such as views regarding chastity and property inheritance, part from tradition. Influenced by science and technology, the Chinese attachment to family gradually flags.

Family function becomes outward, family structure inclines to be loose and family feelings grow faint these may be regarded as three features of the present Chinese family. The formation of the three features originates directly or indirectly from the effect of science and technology.

Facing the drastic change of family, Chinese sociologists propose quite a few theories or doctrines. Despite the differences among these doctrines, these scholars have a view in common: people have to rise to the challenge of science and technology to family.

1. Treat properly the relation between science and technology and family ethics. In the human history, there were family feelings hard to understand. Following the changes in economy and society, such feelings change utterly. Consanguineous marriage is considered as an incest, a crime, however, in the remote antiquity, in the early primitive society, it was fair and reasonable, in compliance to the moral standard of that society. The phenomena that people know only one parent -the mother-is inconceivable today, but it was admitted in the matrilineal society. The relation between science and technology and family ethics may be compared to that between the feet and the shoes. The "shoes" mast fit the "feet" , and people would never cut the "feet" to fit the "shoes", This is a common sense based on historical materialism.

2. Adopt a correct attitude toward the positive and negative effects brought to family by science and technology. Evolution always accompanies deterioration. Everything has its duality. The impact of science and technology on family has two sides, one accelerating evolution, the other accelerating, deterioration. Out attitude is to foster the positive and restrain the negative. Divorce is inseparable from the freedom of marriage. When marriage was not based on the couple's free will, there existed no divorce, at most it was the case of "casting off one's wife". The females had no right to divorce. Divorce was possible after the May 4 the Movement of 1919. Divorce is one aspect of social progress and social civilization, and it has various drawbacks. In these years, the press circles, while confirming divorce, point out the social problems brought about by it. We do not agree with perfunctory divorce and condemn the divorce which disregards the living of the offspring. But, in treating the problem of divorce, the Chinese never "give up eating for fear of choking"-refrain from doing what they should for feat of running a risk. The People's Republic of China promulgated two marriage laws. The progress the new marriage law made is the realization of the transformation from divorce based on faults to divorce not based on faults. However, we still maintain the attitude of fostering the positive and restraining the negative to develop impacts. The rate of divorce rises, but the

Chinese still congratulate the newlyweds and the remarried with the blessing of "living conjugal bliss to a ripe old age".

3. Lay down social notes stressing family virtues. The quality of the Chinese family may be tasked among the top in the world. This is partly due to our emphasis on the building up of family culture. China is not a developed country, and our economic life is not wealth. In our views. wealth is one of the economic prerequisites for happiness, but it is by no means equivalent to happiness. China pays great attention to developing family culture. In many provinces and cities, residents draw up local rules and regulations, valid for villages and accepted by villager, as the conduct code to promote life quality and family quality. Their main ideas include: well-being, health, harmony, culture and devotion. Well-being and health are economic and physical conditions for building up family. Harmony refers to the relation among family members, it is the comprehensive presentation of various qualities. As the Chinese saying goes, harmony makes water sweeter than honey. Culture is a high requirement for family members. Devotion in involves the relation between the family and the society. if a family devotes little to society, it can hardly be considered a good one even if it has high quality. The great Russian write Tolstoy said that the happy families were unitary in pattern and the unhappy ones were diversified. These words have inspired several generations, but they are half true: the happy families are diversified, too. The Chinese rise to the challenge of science to family with a high-spirited attitude, and treat it with correct ideas. Millions of people make unremitting efforts to create thousands of happy families with one heart and one mind.

4. Science and technology will bring greater shock waves to family. The development of science and technology is boundless. The emergence of test-tube baby lashed the family and provoked arguments in ethical, religious and sociological circles. It is still sexual reproduction, now the clone in mammals is proved success, and this causes another great agitation. Judged from the angle of the history of science, the arguments around the clone in human beings will not be as fierce as those caused by Copernicus and Bruno's theory of celestial movement. What will be the conclusion? The arguments may be concluded in the success of science. Should the shoes of family be expanded, they would fit the "big feet" of science.

DISABILITY AND RATIONAL EMOTIVE BEHAVIOR THERAPY (REBT)

Gerald L. Gandy, Ph.D., CRC, NCC

Dr. Gandy is professor emeritus of rehabilitation counseling at the Medical College of Virginia, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, Virginia. He teaches an advanced graduate counseling course on the application of rational emotive behavior therapy (REBT) to rehabilitation counseling. He has also authored a book on the application of REBT to rehabilitation counseling entitled Mental Health Rehabilitation: Disputing Irrational Beliefs, 1995, published by Charles C Thomas, which includes a foreword by Albert Ellis, the founder of REBT.

Introduction

Albert Ellis began to develop Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy (REBT) over 40 years ago in 1955 (Ellis, 1994). He originally called his approach rational therapy or RT to emphasize the cognitive element. He later changed it to rational-emotive therapy or RET because it better described that the cognitive emphasis was designed to change emotions as well as thinking. In 1993 he renamed it Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy or REBT because he thought it more accurately described his approach in terms of all three elements.

When Ellis published the first edition of Reason and Emotion in Psychotherapy in 1962, REBT was highly opposed by practically all the popular psychotherapies such as psychoanalysis, client centered (later to be called person-centered), and Gestalt (Ellis, 1994). However, REBT pioneered a large number of thinking, feeling, and activity-oriented approaches that became known as the cognitive-behavior therapies (Corey, 1996). Corey (1996) has noted that behavior therapy itself began to broaden in the 1960's to include a new perspective, which recognized private events and interpersonal factors along with the importance of environmental variables.

Although REBT became more widely accepted and practiced, when Ard (1968) attempted to introduce REBT to rehabilitation counseling, the initial reaction was negative (Gandy, 1985; Miller and Porter, 1969). The attitude was that REBT would not be an appropriate approach to use with many rehabilitation clients with disabilities. The emphasis on the cognitive element did not seem appropriate with a number of rehabilitation clients who are not very intelligent or educated. It was also believed that a highly cognitive approach would trivialize the intense emotions related to their disabilities of more intelligent rehabilitation clients and cause others who might have difficulty getting in touch with their feelings to further deny or intellectualize about their feelings. The forceful and aggressive nature of the approach combined with its de-emphasis on the relationship did not seem appropriate for many rehabilitation clients who are dealing with self esteem issues related to the stigma of disability. The forceful and aggressive feature was also considered to be overly suggestive and superficial for many rehabilitation clients.

These original views of the relevance of REBT to rehabilitation counseling were based on some misperceptions of REBT as well as a lack of understanding of how REBT could be adapted to rehabilitation counseling (Gandy, 1985). REBT over time has become a very useful therapeutic strategy, not only for rehabilitation counselors, but also for other types of counselors involved with facilitating the emotional development of individuals with either mental or physical disabilities (Gandy, 1995a; 1995b).

Relevance of REBT to People with Disabilities

Although Albert Ellis (Ellis & Dryden, 1997) recommends an active-directive style and a particularly forceful style with some clients, he agrees that varying one's therapeutic style in REBT does not mean departing from the theoretical principles on which the content is based. Some REBT therapists have recommended a more relationship-oriented style with clients (e.g., Young, 1984). Eschenroeder (1979) has noted that it is important to ask in REBT, "Which therapeutic style is most effective with which kind of client?" (p.5). Johnson (1980) has noted how it is important to separate Ellis as a person from his theory and has emphasized how non-REBT therapists can incorporate aspects of REBT into their own approaches in dealing with clients. Ellis's own REBT institute in New York has produced a video series demonstrating four different personality styles in the practice of REBT (DiGiuseppe, 1993). The goal is to encourage viewers to learn how to use REBT in their own style.

Ellis (Ellis & Dryden, 1997) also considers REBT to represent a major form of eclecticism known as "theoretically consistent" eclecticism. As with varying one's therapeutic style mentioned above, techniques can be liberally borrowed from other therapeutic systems but employed for purposes consistent with REBT's underlying theory. Ellis (1969; 1974), for example, has used expressive-emotive experiential procedures similar to those used in Gestalt, sensitivity training, and encounter groups. These techniques can be particularly relevant with some rehabilitation clients who intellectualize or deny their feelings related to their disabilities. However, after clients are helped to get in touch with their feelings, they are taught how they create most of their unconstructive emotions by what they are telling themselves. Ellis (1994) has made a very careful distinction between constructive and unconstructive emotions and encourages very strong emotions but of a constructive nature.

Although Ellis (1994) has admitted that the use of REBT is limited with clients with lesser intelligence and education, he contends that it is more effective with these clients than such therapies as psychoanalytic, person-centered, and Gestalt. He has noted REBT can become quite complex, but that it is an approach that can be presented at a very basic level that is simple and clear. Clients within the average range of intelligence have responded well to REBT. Clients with borderline intellectual functioning are not suitable candidates for cognitive disputing but can be taught simple rational coping statements. Ellis (1996) has further noted that the fact that REBT can be presented at a very basic level has also made it a very effective brief therapy with more intelligent and educated clients who do not have serious emotional disturbances. Many educated and intelligent rehabilitation clients who were functioning well emotionally prior to the onset of a physical disability tend to be excellent candidates for brief therapy (Gandy, 1995a).

Sweetland (1990) has noted that people with physical disabilities are not necessarily more irrational in their thinking than other people, but irrational attitudes can exacerbate physical disabilities. He believes there are at least three reasons why a cognitive approach is particularly appropriate when assisting people with physical disabilities: (1) the disability is permanent and only one's reaction to it, not the condition itself, can be modified; (2) many people hold extremely irrational attitudes toward physical disabilities, which can negatively contribute to the thinking of people with physical disabilities ; and (3) since people with physical disabilities can rarely, if ever attain a sense of physical mastery, a sense of cognitive mastery and control is more important for this population than the general population. Calabro (1990) has described a cognitive-behavioral model for facilitating the adjustment process that follows severe physical disability which takes into consideration emotional, relationship, and values issues.

Continuing Value of Rational Restructuring

The theoretically consistent eclectic nature of REBT mentioned above has made it possible to incorporate therapeutic techniques from very different theoretical orientations, such as person-centered and Gestalt (Ellis & Dryden, 1997). Moreover, as also mentioned above, Ellis (Corey, 1996) pioneered the cognitive-behavioral movement and now includes many techniques in REBT developed by other cognitive-behavioral therapists. REBT therapists, for example, use rational-emotive imagery from Maxie Maultsby's rational behavior therapy, principles of correcting faulty inferences from Aaron Beck's cognitive therapy, and rational coping statements from Donald Meichenbaum's cognitive behavior modification (Ellis, 1994).

Ellis (Ellis & Dryden, 1997) makes a distinction between *general* REBT and *preferential* REBT. *General* REBT often involves correcting person's misperceptions about reality, improving a person's problems-solving behavior, or teaching person rational coping statements. *Preferential* REBT involves a philosophical change in a person core irrational beliefs that the individual may have about life. For example, a female client may incorrectly perceive that some people do not like her. She will feel better to find out that her perception is inaccurate. However, she may still have a core irrational belief that people should never dislike her. Changing core irrational beliefs by rational restructuring or the disputing of irrational beliefs is *preferential* REBT and what made REBT radically different from other therapies. Ellis (1994) found that *preferential* REBT was limited with most clients and began to use cognitive, emotive, and behavioral methods for the purpose of *general* REBT. He notes that *general* REBT is synonymous with broad based cognitive-behavior therapy (CBT) and includes methods that he originally used for that purpose as well as ones that have been borrowed from the newer cognitive-behavior therapies.

Rational restructuring or the disputing of irrational beliefs (*preferential* REBT), however, continues to be a very valuable feature in contemporary therapeutic work with many people who have disabilities (Gandy, 1995a; 1995b). REBT combined with a more relationship oriented style and experiential-expressive techniques can facilitate the use of preferential REBT with many rehabilitation clients. A particularly useful technique has been the use of systematic written homework (SWH) (Ellis & Dryden, 1997; Gandy, 1995a; 1995b). SWH is basically a writing assignment in which a person is given instructions regarding the application of REBT principles to his or her emotional problems. It is less threatening because clients can do it by themselves in the privacy of their own homes. It is still forceful because they are being asked to actively question and challenge themselves.

Further information on books, audiotapes, videotapes, and other materials describing REBT can be obtained from the Institute for Rational-Emotive Therapy, 45 East 65th Street, New York, NY 10021 USA; Phone: (800) 323-IRET.

References

Ard, B. N., Jr. (1968). Rational therapy in rehabilitation counseling. Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin, 12 (2), 84-88.

Calabro, Louis E. (1990). Adjustment to disability: A cognitive-behavioral model for analysis and clinical management. Journal of Rational-Emotive & Cognitive-Behavior Therapy, 8 (2), 79-102.

Corey, G. (1996). Theory and practice of counseling and psychotherapy (5th ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Ellis, A. (1962). Reason and emotion in psychotherapy. Secaucus, NJ: Citadel.

Ellis, A. (1969). A weekend of rational encounter. In A. Burton (Ed.), Encounter. New York: Jossey-Bass.

Ellis, A. (1974). Rationality and irrationality in the group therapy process. In D.S. Milman and G.D. Goldman (Eds.), Group process today. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas.

Ellis, A. (1994). Reason and emotion in psychotherapy. Revised and updated. New York: Birch Lane Press (Carol).

Ellis, A. (1996). Better, deeper, and more enduring brief therapy: The rational emotive behavior therapy approach. New York: Brunner/Mazel.

Ellis, A. and Dryden, W. (1997). The practice of rational emotive behavior therapy (2nd ed.). New York: Springer.

Eschenroeder, C. (1979). Different therapeuticstyles in rational-emotive therapy. Rational Living, 14 (1), 3-7.

Gandy, G. L. (1985). Frequent misperceptions of rational-emotive therapy: An overview for the rehabilitation counselor. Journal of Applied Rehabilitation Counseling, 16 (4), 31-35.

Gandy, G. L. (1995a). Disputing irrational beliefs in rehabilitation counseling. Journal of Applied Rehabilitation Rehabilitation Counseling, 26 (1), 36-40.

Gandy, G. L. (1995b). Mental health rehabilitation: Disputing irrational beliefs. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas.

Johnson, N. (1980). Must the rational-emotive therapist be like Albert Ellis? Personnel and Guidance Journal, 59 (1), 49-51.

Miller, L. A. and Porter, T. L. (1969). Two reactions to Ben Ard's rational therapy in rehabilitation counseling. Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin, 12 93), 130-135.

Sweetland, J. D. (1990). Cognitive-behavior therapy and physical disability. Journal of Rational-Emotive & Cognitive Behavior Therapy, 8 (2), 71-78.

Young, H. S. (1984). The work of Howard Young (special issue), British Journal of Cognitive Psychotherapy, 2 (2), 1-101.

A Study of Family Therapy for Student Counseling

Osamu Honda (Mukogawa Women's University)

The author is a licensed clinical psychologist in Japan and serves as an associate professor as well as student's counselor at Mukogawa Women's University. He is trying to apply Bowen's family system theory to individual therapy and family therapy in the Campus Counseling Room.

1. Function of Upbringing at College

Along with popularization of higher education in Japan, a variety of young people come to colleges and universities. Some of them are intellectually insufficient for academic pursuit and mentally so immature that they require upbringing and guidance such as children receive from their parents at home. The parents who are unable t o educate their own children and unable to train them to be independent social beings, expect kindergartens and schools and even colleges and universities to assume the responsibilities of the upbringing of their offspring. Many of the parents want their children to go to and attend reputable schools and universities so that their children will be well-educated and that eventually they will become what they believe " mature and independent adults" with reputable jobs and positions.

The generation of baby boomers has passed now and the birth rate is sharply declining. So the institutions of higher education, in order to be financially sound, are fervently t trying to recruit their prospective students. That has resulted in a large number of immature students on campus still heavily dependent on their parents or somebody around who is available. In order to meet the need of those immature students and their parents the university has to expand the capacity and function of student counseling. The question whether university professors should really assume the responsibility of upbringing of mentally immature students, still remains to be answered. But we cannot abandon the seriously troubled student. We have to help them as much as possible.

We have learned through our counseling experiences that the majority of troubled and disturbed students are troubled because they have difficulty in the relationship with their own parents. So we have begun to put a heavy emphasis on the counseling of the troubled students' parents. This is of something novel in Japan yet .

2. Family Therapy in the Counseling Room

When a student comes to our office, we start talking with her, and when we find Ego Weakness with the student, we try to get in touch with her parents and arrange the meeting with them. The aim of the meeting with the student's parents is to help the student and her parents enhance their relationship. We believe that the good and comfortable relationship between the student and her parents is the most reliable element that will help her to be free from a difficult complex and then be independent of her parents. We try not to give advice. Instead we listen to the problems that the parents have. and we try accumulated to support the parents mentally. We have a large number of experiences of helping mentally troubled and disturbed students. such as Affective Disorder, Borderline State, Suicidal Desire and Psychotic Level, by offering counseling to their parents instead of giving them advice.

In the case of a student who attempts to run away from home or who needs hospitalization, counseling the student by itself doesn't really help. We need to give counseling to the seriously disturbed parents concerning the troubles of their child. The most important thing here is to help her family, especially her mother, accept her child as she is; her conduct and her problems, her difficulties. That, though indirectly, will help the student most effectively in the end. The student counselor cannot assume all the responsibilities, much less solve all the problems. We often need the resources of doctors and hospitals. We think that it's very important for us to let the troubled student's parents know what kind of resources they have and the choice is best to be made by the student's parents, not by the counselor. If the counselor makes the choice , it would mean that he/she deprives the opportunities of the parents to exercise the responsibilities as a parent. The job of the counselor is nothing but to help the parents make the choice . It often happens that the student's attitude toward her parents is very negative and even antagonistic, and the more immature and dependent the student is, the more important it is for the counselor to help the student and her parents to reconstruct their relationship and find comfort in the relationship. This is the best way to regain her mental stability. Thus, the coordination of the student' her parents' counseling is the key the student get out of the trouble.

3 Counseling for Helping Students Develop Themselves

The function of campus counseling should be not for giving troubled students a cure-all but for help themselves. This function is only possible in the protected situation of the counseling room in the protected educational institution in which they receive social training before they go out into a harsh competitive society.

When a student cannot meet the psychological developmental tasks at a proper stage of her life, her self-esteem tends to become very low and her self-image tends to become deteriorated. She is often troubled by a lack of confidence, by being unable to like herself or even by hating herself. In the case of a girl the symptom could lead to something as serious as neurotic body image which often causes Eating Disorder, phobic Neurosis and Anxiety Neurosis.

Kasahara points out the importance of developmental tasks in adolescence in his book "Adolescence." He says, the first is making friends with anybody of the same sex and the same age, and the second is able to cope with the physical changes of the adolescence. In the case of an obedient girl the second task is not easy. If she has had a deep-seated inferiority complex about her body, her effort for dieting leads to Eating Disorders. From my experiences, such a girl often has an uncomfortable relationship with her father. A girl who cannot like herself tends to suffer from a complex of not being able truly love her father, but rather hates him. To a girl, her father is the first opposite sex that she encounters in life. Subconsciously her mother could be a rival to compete for the love of her father. Ordinarily a father naturally assumes a role to accept his growing daughter as an independent being with admiration and adoration.

From the Mother-Infant Symbiosis, through the stage of mother-daughter coexistence, a girl grows to the stage where she encounters her father as the first opposite sex. Therefore, the appreciation she received from her father is the important factor to lead her to accept her own femininity. Needless to say, the good relationship between her and her mother is the premise for this kind of desirable relationship between her and her father. Sometimes her father assumes the role of her mother due to the unstable relationship between her and her mother. The unstable relationship between her father and mother often causes the mental instability of their daughter.

The purpose of Family Therapy in our counseling office is to help a troubled student mend the fence between herself and other members of her family. In other words, we help them clarify the Intergenerational Boundary, and help the student get out of the mentally chaotic situation, such as Fusion and Enmeshed, or Disengaged and Emotional Cut Off.

4 Expansion of the Function of Campus Counseling

The counseling room on the campus must be a space protected from any influences from without. Everybody concerned there must be free from any pressure from anybody or any organization. Thus, the time and space in the counseling room have to be such that protects both the counselor as well as the client. It is most desirable and effective to perform the job of counseling with the maximum freedom with the minimum responsibility. Performing the counseling doesn't at all mean assuming all the responsibilities that arise in such situations.

A counselor has to avoid such a situation as he or she has to assume the responsibilities for students' suicide, running away from home and disappearing and so forth. The situation like that will not help the counselor to help the clients.

A counselor has to measure and comprehend the two things at the same time. They are the depth of the client's problems hidden behind the client's appeals, and her capability of helping herself. The counselor should respect the client's ability to solve her problem by herself. So the relationship between the counselor and client must better be as such that they are apparently somewhat detached from each other but they deeply care for each other in truth. That can be only possible within the space and time in the counseling room and the counselor can minimize his/her responsibilities that he/she/her may have to assume by interviewing the troubled student's parents. On that condition a counselor can perform his/her job to the maximum extent even with the most seriously troubled students.

Summary

The report aims to clarify some important elements for student counseling.

The majority of troubled and disturbed students are troubled because they have difficulty relating to their own parents. So we have begun to put a heavy emphasis on the counseling of the troubled students' parents. The coordination of the students's counseling and her parents' counseling is the key element for helping the student get out of the trouble.

The purpose of family therapy in our counseling office is to help a troubled student mend the fence between herself and other members of her family. In other words, we help them clarify the intergenerational boundary, and help the student get out of the mentally chaotic situation, such as fusion and enmeshed, or disengaged and emotional cut off.

Reference

Bowen, M. 1985 Family Therapy in Clinical Practice, Jason Aronson Northvale, N.J.
Kasahara, Y. 1977 Adolescence, Chuou Koronsha, Tokyo.

Operationalizing the Ability Chunk of Super's Vocational Theory

Thomas F. Harrington, Ph.D.
Emeritus Professor
Department of Counseling Psychology
Northeastern University
360 Huntington Avenue
Boston, MA 02115
U.S.A.

This paper is about operationalizing three of 14 theoretical propositions related to ability and self-beliefs set forth by Donald Super (1990), a prominent vocational development theorist. Savickas (1994) wrote that "Ability is the integrative construct for much of the rest of psychology" (p. 238). How well we do things influences the way we think about ourselves. Being able to do something well is related to developing a feeling or belief of competence, which in turn provides a sense of self-esteem and potency.

The propositions are:

> *People differ in their abilities and personalities, needs, values, interests, traits and self-concepts.*
>
> *Development through the life stages can be guided partly by facilitating the maturing of abilities and interests and partly by aiding in reality testing and in the development of self-concepts.*
>
> *Each occupation requires a characteristic pattern of abilities and personality traits--with tolerances wide enough to allow both some variety of occupations for each individual and some variety of individuals in each occupation.*

An instrument that operationalizes these three propositions is the *Ability Explorer*(AE) (Harrington & Harrington, 1996). If one wishes to see how people differ, as in the first proposition, a large number of options is helpful. The AE assesses the 14 major work-related abilities identified in the career development literature: language, numerical/mathematical, clerical, mechanical/technical, spatial, manual, scientific, interpersonal, leadership, musical/dramatic, organizational, persuasive, social, and artistic. Since 1975 Harrington and O'Shea have been using 14 abilities found in U.S. Department of Labor publications for use in career decision making. In a summary of 25 years of research, Prediger (1992) reported the same major skills, except that he identified literary rather than

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

musical/dramatic ability. Self-report format methodology for assessing the multifaceted cognitive and non-cognitive abilities has been necessary because suitable tests are not available. In fact, current aptitude tests measure only six (43 percent) of the identified 14 abilities (Harrington & Harrington, 1996). Coincidentally, the use of many abilities rather than the typical 5 or 6 on current measures will better facilitate individuals presenting their uniqueness as part of Super's proposition.

The *Ability Explorer* is an instrument designed to help individuals complete a self-exploration of their abilities and relate this information to career and/or educational planning. It is a career counseling tool that will assist individuals as they discover and assess their potential and seek to understand the relationship of their abilities to school subject areas and to the world of work. There are 140 work and career-related ability statements and behavioral reinforcement statements, each designed to help individuals complete a self-exploration of their abilities in 14 of the work- and career-related abilities identified in the career development literature. Individuals indicate their ability level for each work-related statement on a 6-point scale ranging from "Very Good" to "Very Poor". The *Ability Explorer* also includes a self-report section dealing with activities a person may have tried and courses he or she may have taken.

The following example of AE results shows three scores for each ability area: a self-rating of ability score, a proficiency score in related activities, and the performance level in related school subjects plus the number of school subjects taken in that ability area. For example, scores visually show a person rated his or her scientific ability and involvement in scientific activities as high, rated course performance as medium, and had taken one science course. Interpretation would focus on the person verbalizing his or her self-beliefs about the relation of one's self-ratings to performance. Interpretation would continue to another ability where the self-rating was in the low range on numerical/mathematical with the math activity involvement and grade achievement at the mid range of all students in his or her grade (the AE is normed by grade) and where he or she had taken 3 math courses. The intent of the second example is to show that the person's self-esteem, in the case of math, is lower than expected based on objective data of average proficiency in activities and grades. Why? Self-beliefs or self-concept can and often do affect how one acts. This illustration of self-beliefs in relation to one's experiences and performance is related to Super's second proposition regarding reality testing and the development of self-concept. As one of America's premier authorities on psychological testing, Anastasi's statement (1992) has relevance here:

> The relationship between personality and intellectual development is reciprocal. Not only do personality characteristics affect intellectual development, but intellectual level also affects personality development. The success an individual attains in the development and use of his or her aptitudes is bound to influence that person's emotional adjustment, interpersonal relations, and self-concept. In the self-concept, we can see most clearly the mutual influence of aptitudes and personality traits. The child's achievement in school, on the playground, and in other situations help to shape her or his self-concept; and this concept at any given stage influences his or her subsequent performance. In this respect, the self-concept operates as sort of private self-fulfilling prophecy (p. 613).

The *Ability Explorer* also reports career groups of jobs related to a person's highest two abilities. For example, careers suggested to a person whose two highest abilities were interpersonal and organization, who possessed good language and average numerical skills would be counselor, librarian, and teacher; business manager, funeral director, and sales manager; and legal investigator and paralegal. Clusters of related careers including varied jobs satisfy the third proposition Super set forth of people being qualified for groups of jobs rather than just a few.

A major benefit of using the three AE components - abilities, activities, and courses - is to convey that individuals can improve an ability if they previously neither had the experience nor the opportunity to develop the ability. Involvement in related activities and courses can help develop a specific ability. Exposure to the ten types of skills that comprise each ability also serves an educational function of better defining major competency areas related to work. Conveying that one can improve or enhance an ability is empowerment.

In conclusion, while Super's propositions are well known and objective measures of ability have long existed, our field may have forgotten in practice that abilities and self-concept beliefs are reciprocal. Effective practice calls for a multi-dimensional focus. Herr (1997) noted Super had a personal devotion to tools that could assess the individual's subjective self, that could reveal the person's uniqueness. "Objective measures identify a person's similarity to others, whereas subjective assessment reveals the person's uniqueness" (Super, Savickas, & Super, 1996, pp. 138-9). Which assessment is more useful or predictive, what a person scores on a traditional test or a person's own self-assessment?

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

References

Anastasi, A. (1992). What counselors should know about the use and interpretation of psychological tests. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 70,* 610-615.

Harrington, J. C., & Harrington, T. F. (1996). *Ability explorer.* Chicago: Riverside Publishing.

Harrington, T. F., & O'Shea, A. J. (1975). *The Harrington-O'Shea career decision-making system.* Needham, MA: Career Planning Associates.

Herr, E. L. (1997). *Perspectives on operationalizing Super's theory: Abilities and self-beliefs.* Paper presented at the convention of the National Career Development Association, Daytona Beach, FL.

Prediger, D. (1992). *Identifying and assigning abilities to ACT job clusters and Holland's occupational types.* Paper presented at the convention of the American Association for Counseling and Development, Baltimore, MD.

Savickas, M. L. (1994). Convergence prompts theory renovation, research unification, and practice coherence. In M. L. Savickas & R. W. Lent (Eds.) *Convergence in career development theories: Implications for science and practice.* Palo Alto, CA: CPP Books.

Super, D. E. (1990). A life-span, life-space approach to career development. In D. Brown, L Brooks & Associates (Eds.) *Career choice & development* (2nd ed.) San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Super, D. E., Savickas, M. L., & Super, C. M. (1996). The life-span, life-space approach to careers. In D. Brown, L. Brooks & Associates (Eds.) *Career choice & development* (3rd ed.) San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

History and Development of Career Counseling in the USA

by

Mark Pope, Ed.D.
University of Missouri - St. Louis

Overview of Historic Stages

Career counseling was born of chaos and career counseling's growth has historically come during times of major societal change in the USA and world. Those transitions from what-has-been to what-will-be have provided the major impetus for career counseling's growth and subsequent consolidation of that growth. The new traditions and new institutions which emerge from societal change require people trained in the new skills needed to make the newly-changed society continue to function. Pope (1995) has put forward a model of how career counseling develops and identified certain stages in that model.

First stage: The beginnings of placement and vocational guidance (1890-1919)

Career counseling was born as vocational guidance in the USA in the early 1900s out of societal upheaval, transition, and change. This new profession was described by historian's of that time as a "progressive social reform movement aimed at eradicating proverty and substandard living conditions spawned by the rapid industrialization and consequent migration of people to major urban centers at the turn of the 20th century" (Whiteley, 1984, p. 2). This transition was characterized by the loss of jobs in the agricultural sector, increasing demands for workers in heavy industry, loss of "permanent" jobs on the family farm to new emerging technologies such as tractors, increasing urbanization of the USA, and the concomittant calls for services to meet this internal migration pattern, all in order to retool for this new industrial economy. Returning veterans from World War I and those displaced by their return, only heightened the need for career counseling.

The focus during this stage was on job placement. Parsons (1909) is often called the parent of career counseling and began as a social worker heavily influenced by Jane Addams work in Chicago. In Boston Parsons established a settlement house for young people either already employed and currently unemployed. Vocational guidance at that time was largely without theoretical foundations. It was based on the work of Parsons (1909) who's model of vocational guidance was grounded in "simple logic and common sense and relied predominately on observational and data gathering skills" (Aubrey, 1977, p. 290). This largely intuitive and experiential foundation of vocational guiidance formed the basis for Parsons' establishing the Vocation Bureau at Civic Service House in Boston in 1908. This was the first institutionalization of career counseling in the USA (Ginzburg, 1971).

During the First Period, another factor was the increasing involvement of psychometrics in vocational guidance. Psychological tests became an important and necessary part of the first functional stage in vocational guidance, that is, self-assessment. Testing gave vocational guidance respectability. Without a scientific procedure to justify vocational guidance's first step of self assessment, it is unlikely that vocational guidance would have been so popularly accepted.

The earliest support for vocational guidance came from the progressive social reform movement. "The linkage between this movement and vocational guidance was largely built on the issue of the growing exploitation and misuse of human beings" (Aubrey, 1977, p. 290). The landmark Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 established secondary school vocational education training and was strengthened in succeeding years by the George-Reed Act (1929), George-Ellzey Act (1934), and the George-Deen Act (1936). Each of these laws supported vocational education as an important part of the public schools.

The National Vocational Guidance Assocation (NVGA) (now the National Career Development Association (NCDA)) was founded in 1913 in Grand Rapids, Michigan. The first journal of NVGA was the Vocational Guidance Bulletin, which later became Occupations: The Vocational Guidance Journal. The founders of NVGA included Frank Leavitt (first President), Jesse B. Davis (see below), Meyer Bloomfield (Parsons' successor at the Boston Vocation Bureau and who taught the first course in vocational guidance (Harvard in 1911)), and John M. Brewer (fifth NVGA President and author of the definitive history of career guidance in the USA, 1942). This was a time for the founders of NVGA of growth of and high hopes for vocational guidance.

Second stage: Vocational guidance in education (1920-1939)

The economic depression of the 1930s put the focus squarely on educational counseling, which solidified the role of vocational guidance in the schools and in industry. "The union of education, of social work, and of psychometrics in the vocational guidance of youth and adults was now somewhat more complete (Super, 1955, p. 4). Educational counseling came out of the work of humanitarian, progressive social work reformers like the pioneers, Jesse B. Davis in 1898 who served as a "counselor on educational and career problems" at Central High School in Detroit and Eli Weaver in 1906 who was a principal in the New York City school system. Promoting career development in the schools was slow work, however. Even as late as the 1930s, there were no vocational guidance programs in at least half of the cities in the USA of 10,000 or more population (Brewer, 1942).

Organized labor's strength was growing fast in the wake of the economic depression and President Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal was a response both to the growing power of the unions as well as the loss of jobs. The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) was established in 1933 to provide training and employment opportunity for unemployed youth. It is important to note that the educational services of the CCC were supervised by the US Department of Education. Then, in 1935, the Works Progress Administration was established through federal legislation as an employment source for the millions of people out of work at this time. Finally, the B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau was opened in 1938 in Washington, DC and local Jewish Vocational Services were established in 25 major American cities.

Third stage: Career counseling in colleges and universities (1940-1959)

Schwebel (1984) identified two social conditions which characterized the post-World War II period that led to the the rise of the professional practice of counseling, especially career counseling. "(1) the personal and career problems of adjustment faced by vast numbers of veterans, including those handicapped during the war; (2) the influx of new types of students to higher education as a result of the G. I. Bill of Rights, an influx comparable to the compositional changes in the secondary school earlier in the century" (p. 285). Further, the rise of counseling as an alternative to psychoanalysis was just beginning at the end of this period. Counseling had always been part of vocational guidance since Parsons, but the developmental and educational aspects of counseling were to take the lead and complete the transition to career counseling as the major technique used by vocational guidance professionals (Aubrey, 1977).

Two major events occurred during this stage which set the tone for all subsequent world-wide actions. First, the second World War happened which focused the energy and attention of all nations of the world on this contest between nationalistic fascism (Germany, Japan, and Italy) and capitalism/communism allied at this time (USA, USSR, Great Britain, France). Truman's Fair Deal program was a response to the problems encountered by returning armed services veterans. The lack of jobs and the subsequent displacement of current workers by these returning veterans - both were important cultural problems with which Truman attempted to deal.

Second, the USSR successfully launched the first space probe, Sputnick I, in 1957 and then followed that by landing on the moon, Lunick II, in 1959. These two events more than any other bowed American capitalism for a time. The USA had considered itself far superior technologically than any other country on Earth; however, when the USSR was so successful in their space program, this impelled federal legislators to begin to address the problems in science and math education all across the USA. The passage of the National Defense Education Act in 1957 was a direct response to this successful launching of Sputnick and the desperation of American government officials at the "loss" of this supposed American superiority in technology. The emphasis was on strenghening science education and identifying gifted students who would be encouraged to major in science; it provided funding for establishing and maintaining achievement and career interest testing programs and for training and hiring school counselors. Also, the Counseling and Guidance Training Institutes were established under the NDEA to provide improved training for counselors. This was a boom period for the training of counselors.

As a direct result of the growth of vocational guidance and realizing that there was strength in joining together with other guidance and personnel professional organizations, in 1951 NVGA helped to found the American Personnel and Guidance Association (later to become the American Association for Counseling and Development in 1983, and then the American Counseling Association in 1994). Donald Super became the first president of this new Association in 1953. NVGA's journal, *Occupations: The Vocational Guidance Journal*, became the *Personnel and Guidance Journal*. NVGA then established the *Vocational Guidance Quarterly* as it's journal, later to become the *Career Development Quarterly*.

Fourth stage: The beginnings of organizational career development (1960-1979)

The Vietnam War era in the USA was a time of idealism and hope. John F. Kennedy's election as President of the USA (1960), Lyndon Johnson's Great Society (1965), the beginning of the great modern day civil rights movements, and the economic highs of that period all came together to focus a generation on the changes that were required to make American democracy live up to it's words. Young people wanted jobs that meant something in their lives, not just a "9 to 5" job, but to do something that would change the world for the better. "(T)he mass of young Americans do not disdain the idea of work as a necessary and at least potentially meaningful and rewarding life activity. Their attack is upon the character of available jobs and the overly conforming and depersonalizing conditions under which most individuals must labor" (Borow, 1974, p. 25). Borow (1974) captured the tone of the times when he termed the USA as "a rich, sophisticated, yet humane nation dedicated to providing all of its citizens with a broad spectrum of services and opportunities for achieveng the good life" (p. 7).

Federal legislation is also illustrative of the expectations of Americans during this time. At the beginning of the 1960s, the unemployment rate was 8.1%, the highest since the 1930s. President John F. Kennedy entered office in 1961 and, as one of his first acts, appointed a panel of consultants on vocational education who issued their report in 1962 which stated that school counselors need to "have exceptional understanding of the world of work and its complexities. What is obviously needed is a counselor who meets all of the requirements of a professional background in pupil personnel services and who at the same time is a specialist in occupational information, vocational guidance, and counseling" (U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1963, p. 213). Their recommendations were written into legislation through the passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963.

This report was soon followed by federal legislation to attract new sources of jobs to economically depressed areas (Area Redevelopment Act, 1961), to provide assistance to workers who were victims of automation (Manpower Development and Training Act, 1962), to create Job Corps, Neighborhood Youth Corps, VISTA, and Head Start Program (Economic Opportunity Act, 1964), to broaden the scope of vocational rehabilitation agencies to deal with impairments to effective vocational life caused by educational, cultural, social or environmental factors (Vocational Rehabilitation Administration Budget, 1965), create New Careers Program to create subprofessional jobs, careers ladders, and differentiated staffing (Economic Opportunity Act, 1966 amendments), to create Work Incentive Program for welfare clients who wished and were able to become economically self-sufficient including funds for training, education, day care for children of participants, and a variety of support services, including counseling (Social Security Act, 1967), and to provide aid for disadvantaged children in schools in proverty areas, for library resources, and for guidance and counseling services (Elementary and Secondary Education Act, amended in 1969) (Herr, 1974).

The rise of career development in organizational settings was an outgrowth of this era. Growth in career counseling in governmental agencies, in nonprofit community agencies, and in business and industry were the hallmarks of this stage. Such governmental agencies as Lawrence Livermore National Laboratories and the Office of Management and Budget had large career development centers and substantial staffs. Such companies as Glaxo Pharmaceuticals, Pacific Bell, and IBM also built career services centers during this time. The late 1970s however were characterized by a declining economic system rather than by growth and prosperity; this began the transition to the fifth stage.

Fifth stage: Private practices and outplacement counseling (1980-1989)

The USA began another economic transition in the 1980s -- from an industrial age to an information and technology age. This new transition spawned another host of problems, such as loss of jobs in the industrial sectors of our economy, increasing demands from employers for technological skills, loss of "permanent" jobs to contract labor, loss of job security, marginalization of organized labor, all in order to retool for the information and technology economy.

In the USA there has been renewed interest and support for career development through the policies of the federal government. Beginning with President George Bush (1988-91) and carrying over to President Bill Clinton (1992 to present), there has been a resurgence in interest in the lifelong career development of the American populace. Such policies as the School to Work Transition Program and One-Stop Career Centers are important initiatives in this national campaign (Hamilton, 1990; Marshall & Tucker, 1992; National Education Goals Panel, 1991; W. T. Grant Foundation Commission on Work, Family, and Citizenship, 1988). The role of organized career development professionals and federal agencies through the National Career Development Assocation, American Vocational Association, National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee, and American School Counselor Association working together was pivotal to the quality of the final legislation. With the input of these professional associations, the USA will have students from elementary school to middle school who are exploring the world of work in preparation for choosing to take a certificate during high school in an area of career study -- all of this based on applying the research we know about the development of career interest patterns in human beings.

In 1987 the Hudson Institute commissioned and published a report titled, Workforce 2000, which laid the foundation for the career development policies of both the Bush and Clinton administrations in the USA. Particularly important because of its workplace demographic assumptions about the composition of the new American workforce, that new entrants into that workforce will be predominantly ethnic, racial, and sexual minorities (Johnson & Packer, 1987). Economic arguments were also made during this transition by the National Center on Education and the Economy (1990). In their position paper they argued that a transition from a low skills to a high skills occupational society in the USA was crucial so as to allow the USA to compete better internationally.

With the national acceptance of career counseling as an important service to provide to a citizenry in occupational transition and the proliferation of mental health private practices, the nexus of the two was the private practice career counselor. This practitioner whose livelihood depended on continuous marketing of short-term career counseling provided the vitality for the expansion and growth of the professional practice of career counseling during this period.

Outplacement counseling had it's beginnings at this time. Outplacement is a term used when a company is having economic difficulties and begins to layoff workers.

Outplacement counselors are then brought in to help those workers find new employment -- placement outside of their company. Outplacement led to the founding of such firms as Drake, Beam, and Morin; Lee Hecht Harrison; and Right Associates, who competed for these lucrative outplacement contracts side by side with career counselors in private practice.

Stage six: Internationalization of career counseling and multicultural career counseling (1990 to present)

Quite important during this period was the first ever survey of the attitudes and beliefs of the American workforce regarding career development. With a grant from NOICC, NCDA commissioned the Gallup Organization to conduct three national surveys - 1989, 1992, and 1994. These surveys were published as books and received much national attention even being cited by federal legislators in their speeches during debate on these issues on the floor of US Congress (Brown & Minor, 1989; Brown & Minor, 1992; Hoyt & Lester, 1994).

The changing demographics of the American workforce came to the forefront during this period. Hoyt (1989) addressed the National Career Development Association at their luncheon at their annual meeting in Chicago in 1988 and reviewed the progress that women and ethnic and racial minorities in the USA have made during the past 20 years. Hoyt who worked for the US Department of Labor and wrote the definition of "work" for the USA was also President of the American Counseling Association and the NCDA. He drafted the first policy statement of NCDA on career development. This new policy statement of the NCDA Board of Directors emphasized career development as a longitudinal process taking place throughout the life span and was used effectively as testimony in legislative hearings on federal and state jobs and careers legislation in the USA (NCDA, 1993). These changing demographics have led to a greater emphasis in both counseling in general and career counseling on multicultural counseling skills.

This period of increased communication and technological sophistication has led to shrinking our planet. We can communicate by telephone, facsimile transmission, and internet to anywhere in the world in a blink of an eye. Personal communication devices such as pagers and cellular telephones have made it possible to contact a person anywhere they are. The logical extension of these changes for the career counselor is career counseling over the internet and by telephone as well as the opening up of career counseling markets in other countries. This expansion has included substantial energy and economic investment in taking career counseling to other countries; however, USA career counselors now work in Singapore, Russia, China, Hong Kong, Malaysia, Australia, Estonia, to name but a few.

Summary

We have seen several stages in the history of career counseling and development in the USA -- each presaged by major societal change. Each of these stages has had profound effects on the lives of individuals in our society. In the first stage (1890-1919) placement services were offered for an increasingly urban and industrial society. In the second stage (1920-39) educational guidance through the elementary and secondary schools became the focal point. The third stage (1940-59) saw the focus shift to colleges and universities and the training of counselors. The fourth stage (1960-79) was the boom for counseling and the idea of work having meaning in a person's life came to the forefront; organizational career development began during this period. The fifth stage (1980-89) saw the beginning of the transittion from industrial age to information age and the growth of outplacement counseling. The sixth stage (1990-present) with its emphasis on technology and changing demographics has seen the growth of private practice career counseling, internationalization of career counseling, and the beginnings of multicultural career counseling.

Pope (1997) and Zhang (1997) have both described the stages in the historical development of career counseling although for quite different countries. Similar historic

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

epochs, however, appear from the descriptions to have effected that development similarly. In analyzing the Hong Kong dynamics, it appears that Hong Kong may be experiencing similar developmental stages, but career counseling has a much shorter history there.

References

Aubrey, R. F. (1977). Historical development of guidance and counseling and implications for the future. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 288-295.

Borow, H. (1974). Apathy, unrest, and change: The psychology of the 1960s. In E. L. Herr (Ed.), Vocational guidance and human development (pp. 3-31). Washington, DC: Houghton Mifflin.

Brewer, J. M. (1942). History of vocational guidance. New York: Harper.

Brown, D., & Minor, C. W. (Eds.) (1989). Planning for and working in America: Report of a national survey. Alexandria, Virginia: National Career Development Association.

Brown, D., & Minor, C. W. (Eds.) (1992). Career needs in a diverse workforce: Implications of the NCDA Gallup survey. Alexandria, Virginia: National Career Development Association.

Hamilton, S. (1990). Apprenticeship for adulthood: Preparing youth for the future. New York: Free Press.

Herr, E. L. (1974). Manpower policies, vocational guidance and career development. In E. L. Herr (Ed.), Vocational guidance and human development (pp. 32-62). Washington, DC: Houghton Mifflin.

Hoyt, K. D. (1989). The career status of women and minority persons: A 20-year retrospective. Career Development Quarterly, 37(3), 202-212.

Hoyt, K. D., & Lester, J. N. (1994). Learning to work: The NCDA Gallup Survey. Alexandria, Virginia: National Career Development Association.

Ginzberg, E. (1971). Career guidance. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Johnson, W. B., & Packer, A. E. (1987). Workforce 2000: Work and workers for the twenty-first century. Indianapolis, Indiana: Hudson Institute.

Marshall, R., & Tucker, M. (1992). Thinking for a living. New York: BasicBooks.

National Career Development Association (1993). Career development: A policy statement of the 1992-1993 Board of Directors. Alexandria, Virginia: Author.

National Center on Education and the Economy. (1990). America's choice: High skills or low wages. Rochester, New York: Author.

National Education Goals Panel. (1991). Builiding a nation of learners. Denver, Colorado: Author.

Parsons, F. (1909). Choosing a vocation. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Pope, M. (1995, July). Career development leadership: Cultivating the vitality of our profession. NCDA Career Developments, 23(3), 8.

Schwebel, M. (1984). From past to present: Counseling psychology's socially prescribed role. In J. M. Whiteley, N. Kagan, L. W. Harmon, B. R. Fretz, & F. Tanney (Eds.), The coming decade in counseling psychology. Schenectady, NY: Character Research Press.

Super, D. E. (1955). Transition: From vocational guidance to counseling psychology. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 2, 3-9.

U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. (1963). Education for a changing world of work (Panel of Consultants on Vocational Education, pp. 206-214). Washington, DC: U. S. Government Printing Office.

W. T. Grant Foundation Commission on Work, Family, and Citizenship. (Ed.). (1988). The forgotten half: Pathways to success for America's youth and young families (Final Report). Washington, DC: Author.

Whiteley, J. M. (1984). Counseling psychology: A historical perspective. Schenectady, NY: Character Research Press.

The Historical Evolution of Career Development in China and Hong Kong

by
Dr. Zhang Weiyuan
University of Hong Kong

This article describes the historical evolution of career development in China and Hong Kong. According to Zhang (1994), the evolution of career guidance or development in China can be divided into six distinct stages: the rise of vocational guidance (1917-1949); reorientation (1950-1965); abandonment (1966-1976); transition (1977-1986); experimentation (1987-1989); and expansionism (1990 - present). Hong Kong is a relatively new opportunity for career development and can be classified into three stages: the rise and development of vocational guidance (1958 - 1978); the transitional period from vocational guidance to careers guidance (1978-1990); and the consolidation period (1991 to present). Soon Hong Kong and China will be closer governmentally that they have been for 100 years.

Career Development in China

Stage 1: The rise of vocational guidance (1917-1949)

Career guidance was sponsored by the China Vocational Education Association (CVEA). The CVEA was established in Shanghai in 1917 by Huang Yaipei, the parent of vocational guidance and vocational education in China. Other founders of the CVEA included Zhang Yu, Lu Feigui, Jiang Weiqiao, Chen Baoquan, and Cai Yuanpei (Bailey, 1990).

In 1917, Huang Yaipei had visited 25 cities and 52 schools in the USA and began to adapt the USA ideas of vocational guidance and vocational education to the Chinese context. The CVEA called for the education of the Chinese citizen that would directly solve the "problem of livelihood." The aim of CVEA was to help unemployed people successfully find jobs and to also make employed people happier in their work (CVEA, 1989). According to Huang Yaipei, if everybody could find as well as, at the same time, enjoy their work, unhappiness and misery would disappear from the Earth (CVEA, 1985). The CVEA founding members published several books on vocational guidance during the ensuing years (CVEA, 1927; CVEA, 1936; Hou, 1946). CVEA also established Vocational Guidance Committees along with job centers in larger Chinese cities such as Shanghai, Nanjin, Chongqing, and Fuzhou.

Bile Secondary School was established by the CVEA in Shanghai in 1946. This was the first experiment with career guidance in secondary schools in China.

Stage 2: The reorientation of vocational guidance (1950-1965)

With the revolution led by Mao Tsetung and the founding of the People's Republic of China in 1949, the Soviet Union's "polytechnic education" as proposed by Nadezhda Krupskaya became the model for China. Many methods from the Soviet Union were introduced into the Chinese schools, such as guidance teachers, extracurricular collectives, and class collectives. Also, during this period, a centralized placement system was established as the Chinese government guaranteed rights to education and work for all citizens.

Stage 3: The abandonment of vocational guidance (1966-1976)

During the "cultural revolution", all vocational and technical schools ceased operation and only the regular secondary schools were retained to educate young people. The return to a work-oriented social ideology, to a worker/peasant leadership of the revolution, and away from the university intellectuals led to much societal upheaval as university faculty along with many of their students were sent to the rural areas of China to be reeducated by the workers and peasants of those rural areas as to the true value of work. Also, the CVEA was disbanded and most of its researchers were also sent to work on the farms.

Stage 4: A transitional period (1977-1986)

According to Zhang (1994), the 3rd Plenary Session of the 11th Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party met in December, 1978, and adopted resolutions that would turn the direction of Chinese society finally toward modernization. China's revolution had occurred when China was still largely underdeveloped industrially. With no large urban industrial workforce, China had leaped from a peasant-based society to a worker-based society without much of the necessary transition. The resolutions and the new economic structures were supposed to make up for the lack of transition.

A National Conference on Employment in 1980 led to many of these new structures including a new three-level employment system (the state, the collective, and individually-owned businesses) and a new job assignment system (from a system of unified labor allocation by a labor bureau where workers were assigned to jobs for life to a "contract system" where employees had the freedom to choose their jobs and employers had the right to both select and fire workers in their business).

A Joint Conference of the Ministry of Education and the State General Bureau of Labor in 1980 agreed that the current educational system did not meet the needs of the new employment system and called for the reform of the secondary school system as well as the redevelopment of vocational and technical schools.

In 1985 a National Education Conference called by the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China issued a call to reform the educational system. Resolutions passed at this Conference proposed reforms such as compulsory education for nine years (age 7 to age 16) as well as provisions for directing students into different kinds of schools (academic or vocational/technical) after age 16 until enrollments reached 50% each in academic or vocational/technical schools. "From 1949 to 1986, there was no proper career guidance in secondary schools in China. . . . (After that) teachers could not (still) give students proper help when students gained the freedom to choose their subjects. They gave students some suggestions for career choices, but (these suggestions were) based only on minimum personal experience and limited information" (Zhang, 1994, p. 4).

Finally, in 1980 the CVEA was reestablished along with it's journal, Vocation and Education.

Stage 5: The experimental period of career guidance (1987-1989)

In 1987 the first National Conference on Career Guidance was held in Shanghai. Sponsored by the China State Education Commission, this Conference led to the establishment of three experimental schools (Luwan District of Shanghai, Dongchen District of Beijing, and Heinan High School of Shanghai) where a career guidance system would be developed under the direction of the East China Normal University (Shanghai).

In 1988 the first book in the field of career guidance since 1949 was published. School and Vocational Guidance by Zhang and Qu sold out 80,000 copies and many schools throughout China used this book as a textbook to design and develop career guidance courses. Further, in 1989 the China State Education Commission distributed a document describing the model experimental career guidance program at the Luwan District in Shanghai.

Stage 6: The expansionist period (1990 - present)

In 1990, the 2nd National Conference on Career Guidance was held in Shanghai, sponsored by the China State Education Commission, the CVEA, and the Shanghai Education Bureau. Over 125 conference participants came from 25 Chinese provinces and cities with 100 papers presented at the Conference. The China State Education Commission then funded a variety of new books including: Career Guidance in Secondary Schools (for students); Career Guidance in Secondary Schools (for teachers); An Introduction and Classification of Occupations; Career Guidance in Foreign Countries, An Introduction to Vocational and Technical Schools, and others.

Since 1993 the career guidance course has been a required course in all secondary schools in Shanghai. All the secondary schools in Dongcheng District and some secondary schools in other districts in Beijing have established career guidance courses.

In Guangdong, textbooks on career guidance have been published by the Guangzhou Educational College and have been used in some second secondary schools in Guangdong. A research group on career guidance has been organized in Guangdong Educational College under the support of China State Education Commission. Other career guidance courses have been developed in Hubei province, Jiangsu province, Shanxi province, Liaoning province, Hei Longjiang province, Tianjing city, and many other secondary schools.

Career Counseling in Hong Kong

Stage 1: The rise and development of vocational guidance (1958 - 1978)

In 1958 the Director of Education set up an advisory work group on ways and means to help young people to prepare themselves for employment. This work group recommended that each secondary school should appoint a Careers Master who would help young people at school to become aware of the opportunities that were open to them upon leaving school. The work group also recommended that Careers Masters be brought together in some form of a professional association. As a result of this, the Hong Kong Association of Careers Masters came into being in May, 1959. The main purposes of which were: (a) to collect and disseminate information of careers; (b) to assist members by arranging talks by representatives of employers, organizing visits by members to the workplace of employers, and adopting other methods of bringing members and employers together; and (c) to serve members as opportunity offers in their efforts to inform students and parents of suitable avenues of employment. The Chairman of this new professional association was elected from representatives of member schools. The Careers Office of the Education Department is the Hon. Secretary of the Executive Committee ex-officio. These representatives were usually senior members of the schools who were appointed as Careers Masters. Their responsibilities were as follows: to provide students with information about employment and careers; to give them guidance in their later years at school; and to help them find suitable employment.

The Labour Department also provided employment services through its Employment Division, one of which is the Youth Employment Advisory Service. This service, modeled after the United Kingdom system but adapted to suit local circumstances, was established in 1968 to cater to the needs of young school leavers or students about to leave school. It performed the following functions: (a) to prepare and to publish a comprehensive handbook on careers in Hong Kong, the contents of which will be further categorized and printed as individual leaflets for distribution to interested parties; (b) to give group talks on "How to choose a career" to secondary school students who are about to leave school; and (c) to established close liaison with the Careers Officers of the Education Department and the Association of Careers Masters and other interested and concerned organizations for the purpose of exchanging ideas in the field of careers guidance, and through them to disseminate the career information prepared by the service.

From 1958 to the 1970s, career guidance services have been provided through the Careers Education Section of the Education Department, the Labour Department, and the Hong Kong Association of Careers Masters and Guidance Masters. They work closely together to provide assistance and information during the three stages of career choice: career awareness, career exploration, and career preparation.

Stage 2: The transitional period from vocational guidance to careers guidance (1978-1990)

Following the introduction of the policy providing for nine years free and compulsory education in 1978, the need for a more comprehensive guidance service in secondary schools became imperative as all children, including those who are unmotivated and backward, were now admitted into the schools. The educational and behavioral problems of many children in the mainstream have become more visible. Between 1982 and 1986, the Education Department provided each standard-sized government and secondary school with five additional teachers to improve the various supportive services to students. One of these teaching posts was provided specifically to strengthen counseling and guidance, including careers guidance.

In 1985 and 1986 each school added two non-subject teachers. One of their responsibilities was educational and vocational guidance. In 1987, the Educational Bureau issued a notice asking each school to appoint a career guidance teacher and reduce that teacher's teaching time and also asking for other teachers to be involved in career guidance.

Stage 3: The consolidation period and current state of careers guidance in Hong Kong (1991 to present)

Currently in Hong Kong, careers guidance in secondary schools are conducted through activities. Six types of activities are included in career development: 1) student assessment service; 2) providing materials; 3) placement service; 4) educational and vocational guidance service; 5) counseling; and 6) evaluation and study.

There are Careers Information Centers in each district that provide occupational materials, evaluations of personal characteristics, placement, educational planning, and training. Facilities available in each Center include larger rooms filled with career information for individuals or groups to visit and smaller rooms for individual counseling and testing.

The Young People's Careers Guidance Group in the Hong Kong Labor Department was founded in 1986. This Group is designed to assist secondary school students' educational and vocational growth. They organize many activities aimed to help young people in choosing jobs that could match their talent, interests, and abilities, including: (1) group guidance; (2) setting up the Careers Information Centers,; (3) producing career materials; and (4) training careers guidance teachers.

Group guidance

Group guidance includes:

a) Lectures: The Vocational Guidance Group sends their members to give students lectures so that they can have a general idea of the world of work. The content of lectures includes such topics as the chances of vocational training for third year students of secondary schools, educational and vocational roads of the fifth year students after graduation ; and how to look for a job and how to prepare interview.

b) Career choice knowledge competitions. The first competition was help in 1982 followed by annual competitions since then.

c) Vocational material exhibitions: Annually since 1992, vocational materials are exhibited in Hong Kong. The aim of such exhibitions is to introduce students to the available occupations in Hong Kong. This Educational and Vocational Exhibition is held at the Hong Kong Conference and Exhibition Center and is sponsored by the Vocational Guidance Group and Hong Kong Trade Development Bureau over a four days period.

d) Vocational visiting: Started in 1984 and annually since then, students in the fourth and fifth years of secondary schools have chances to visit real work situations.

Careers Information Centers.

There are two Careers Information Center, one is in Hong Kong and the other is in Kowloon. Each center has a vocational information library, which exhibits educational, vocational, and training information; audio-visual materials; and counseling service.

Producing career materials.

This organization is also responsible for editing and printing career materials and producing audio-visual materials on careers. One such project is the "vocational introduction" which includes information on the nature of jobs; requirements, qualification; training chances, and prospects for advancement.

Careers guidance teachers' training.

The Careers Guidance Group, the Educational Bureau, and the Continuing Education Department of Hong Kong University conduct a part-time training course each year. The purpose of this course is to help careers teachers to learn the theories and skills of guidance. They also sponsor a careers guidance conference each year.

Summary

Pope (1997) and Zhang (1997) have both described the stages in the historical development of career counseling although for quite different countries. Similar historic epochs, however, appear from the descriptions to have effected that development similarly. In analyzing the Hong Kong dynamics, it appears that Hong Kong may be experiencing similar developmental stages, but career counseling has a much shorter history there.

References

Bailey, P. J. (1990). Reform the people: Changing attitudes towards popular education in early twentieth-century China. Edinburgh, Scotland: Edinburgh University Press.

China Vocational Education Association. (1927). Vocational guidance in foreign countries. Shanghai: Author.

Education & Manpower Branch, Government Secretariat. (1994). A guide to education and training in Hong Kong. Hong Kong: The Government Printer.

Fung, Y.-W. (1971). Vocational guidance in Hong Kong. Journal of Education & Psychology, 38 (4).

Fan, H.-C. (1991). Transition process from school to work: A comparative analysis in three east Asian cities: Shanghai, Tokyo, and Hong Kong. Thesis (Ph.D.): Columbia University.

Lee, K.-L. (1995). Social class and career aspiration: A study of F.5 students in two schools in Hong Kong. Thesis (M.Ed.) University of Hong Kong.

Pope, M. (1997, May). The history and development of career counseling in the USA. Proceedings of the Sixth International Counseling Conference, Beijing, China.

Tam, P. (1990). Guidance work in Hong Kong secondary schools. In International Counseling Conference Proceedings: Counseling in the 21st century.

Yau, B.-L. (1994). Student counselling. Hong Kong: The Chinese University Press.

Zhang, W. Y. (1997, May). The historical evolution of career development in China and Hong Kong. Proceedings of the Sixth International Counseling Conference, Beijing, China.

Zhang, W. Y. (1994). The history and current state of careers guidance in China. Educational and Vocational Guidance Bulletin, 55, 1-7.

Zhang, W. Y. (1993). A new model of careers guidance in a few secondary schools in Shanghai of China. Career Guidance Today (Autumn issue).

A Study on Learning Strategies and The Effect of Group Counseling for Learning of Senior High Students

Ming-Chao Chen
Professor in the Dept. of Guidance,
National Chang Hua University of Education.
Taiwan R.O.C.

Kong-Jieng Tseng
Principle of Taiwan Provincial Chang Hua Senior High School.

Rationale

The purpose of providing guidance for senior high students is to promote learning, increase the opportunity of entering into universities and to assist in choosing a proper path by facilitating their self-understanding.

However, various studies have discovered that the senior high students in Taiwan face extreme confusion regarding their learning. Many of them have inferior learning strategies and a lack of motivation due to their poor self-concept and emotional state. As a result, if We can offer appropriate guidance strategies we will be able to assist students in their personal and academic development. This will promote self-confidance as well as prepare them for advanced studies.

There are different learning problems for students at the various levels; such as lack of attentiveness, test anxiety, poor note-taking skills, inability to use learning plans, and lack of learning motivation. Recently, we have found through a senior high schools' survey and teachers' seminar that learning problems generally exist for senior high students. Students especially do not know how to learn, take notes, or look up the data. Although the need of learning guidance for senior high students is very urgent, there is no proper learning strategy to deal with such a need in the high schools. In particular, guidance is given students with learning problems to overcome their handicaps, as well as to cultivate a finer learning attitude and habit. Consequently, how to research and study an appropriate learning strategy for focusing on senior high students' learning conditions is the task of greatest urgency at present.

The definition of so-called "Learning strategy" is very wide, and each scholar has a different viewpoints. Broadly speaking,it is any behavior or thinking activitiy that is helpful for recall, retention, arrangement and acquisition of knowledge for learners, including the related strategies of learning techniques and cognition at the aspect of behavior, as well as catching hold of one's own knowledge in the process of cognition, namely, a capability of Meta-cognition.

There has been more and more research evidence that has notable positive relation regarding the relationship between the learning strategy and the academic achievement; that is to say, the students who have gotten higher achievement on the schoolwork have had learning strategies better than others'.And this is inferable from the case of facilitating their schoolwork achievement by increasing students' learning strategies, We may discover, mostly, that it has had a good learning effect as shown in the practical evidence from teaching learning strategy in recent years.

Whatever a teacher or a student's learning is, according to the research of psychologists, the category of learning strategy comprises the multifarious aspects, like cognition behavior, and affectation. Of which, main contents should include learning motivation, testing strategy, self-management, test anxiety, cognition strategies, metacognition strategies and resources-seeking, etc.

Based on the foregoing, teachers have taught teaching skills for learning strategies through the path of learning(practice); teachers can mull over students' individual differences to help students practice learning strategies sufficiently during the time of teaching, so as to expand learning achievements by means of being able to solve students' learning problems. Furthermore, teachers are capable of diagnosing individual student's perplexity through the teaching of a small class to offer corrective measures of teaching and individual guidance.

Accordingly, the purposes of this research are to:

1. Revise and edit one of the "Scale of Learning Strategies of Senior High Students"

2. Research and discuss learning problems and use the teaching of learning strategies for senior high students in Taiwan, including second-grade high school students of Changhua Senior High School, as well as the learning strategies of senior high students who have discrepancies due to various factors like sex or grade level.

151

3. Research and edit a training project of guidance skills for learning strategy, which focuses on teachers.

4. Test the teachers who have accepted the guidance skills training of learning strategies to see whatever they carry on with the guidance of learning strategies in class.

5. Pick out the senior high students who have inferior learning strategies, and implement a small-group of counseling.

IMPLEMENTATION OF RESEARCH :

This research is carried on in four parts:

1. The first part is to edit one "Scale of Learning Strategies of Senior High Students". We especially make use of senior high students in Taiwan as the population, which selects 32 schools, including provincial and private institutes, of which the student total is 2,776 people, and who are the subjects by means of a stratified random sampling. In addition, tryout, item analysis, test of reliability and validity and norm establishing allow us to realize the situation of learning strategies on senior high students in Taiwan, Republic of China.

2. The second part is to hold a seminar of learning strategies for teachers; this would include a seminar to meet the demands of this research, and to provide for teachers who teach English, Math, Physics and Chemistry to participate in the seminar. Approximately 100 people. Furthermore, inviting the professors who are good at learning strategies would allow them to confer about the common learning strategies and how to generally utilize the techniques and approaches of learning strategies in the above four subjects.
3. Teaching of learning strategies in the class: we make use of the second-grade students of Changhua Senior High School as the population. Random sampling of 5 classes as the experimental group (233 people) and 5 classes as the controle group (235 people) from 10 selected classes. The content of the experimental group is to teach students the common learning strategies (such as how to concentrate while studying) and the learning strategies on each subject (such as english: how to memorize vocabulary). A chief counselor is in charge of the common learning strategies and the experienced teachers are in charge of each and every subject individually. Before and after the two-month experimental teaching, teachers can make use of "Scale of Learning Strategies

of Senior High Students" that was self-edited as the tool of evaluation, so as to compare the effects between the two groups.

4. Group counseling effect & research on training of the learning strategies:

This is to screen the Changhua senior high students with the inferior learning strategies, who are the experimental subjects. Random sampling 10 persons from among the objects as the experimental group, and the other 10 persons as the control group, of which each group undergoes counseling by carrying on a 10-week experiment (one hour a week); the purpose is to confer about common learning strategies' contents and practice of self-regulation learning strategies to enable them to share experiences, and for members to support one another. Firstly, testing the experimental group and the control group by "Scale of Learning Strategies of Senior High Students", and next testing the differences between two groups after practicing the experiment, will help us evaluate the effects of this experiment.

We take advantage of "Scale of Learning Strategies of Senior High Students" and "Scale of Learning Strategies of Senior High Teachers" for the tools of measurements. The various items on both of the scales help to figure the manner of score-calculating and statistical analysis of scores, according to the regulations of testing, and also carry out the data analysis by the Statistical Package for Social Science (abbreviated as SPSS).

CONCLUSION:

1. Edited "Scale of learning strategies of senior high students"

According to the domestic and overseas scales of learning strategies and the domestic current learning situation for senior high students, we randomly samples about 2776 students from the 32 schools in order to understand the utilization of the learning strategies for senior high students. We have edited seven subscales, of which total numbers are 100 formal ones. The designation of seven subscales shows as follows: learning motivation, test strategies, self-management, test Anxiety, Cognition Strategies, Meta-cognition Strategies and Seeking resources.

Regarding the Cronbach α coefficient between the total scale and the subscale, the total scale was .63 and each subscale was between .59 and .91. while its test-retest coefficient was .69. In addition. the coefficient of the subscale of self-management was below 0.50; the rest of subscales are between 0.50 and 0.73.

2. Investigation & research:

The investigation & research in this study is divided into Investigation of Senior High Students in the Taiwan Area and Investigation of Second-grade Students in Changhua Senior High School. The former one sampled 2776 students among the 32 schools with effective samples, of which the average score was 3.23 and standard deviation was .51, after the data had been analyzed, which means utilization of learning strategies for Taiwan senior high students is fine; especially better in the aspects of metacognition strategies but worse in the test anxiety and self-management. Except for test strategies for the first-grade students can reaching .05 significance level, which is only higher than the third-grade students; having no difference with the rest of the students. Furthermore, we found that cognition strategies, metacognition strategies and capabilities of dealing with test anxiety for male students are obviously higher than female students if comparing the conditions of sex; but with respect to test anxiety, the performance of female students was better than their male counter parts.

3. Seminar of guidance knowledge and abilities of senior high teachers:

(1) Learning strategies for teachers who participated in the seminar of guidance knowledge and abilities of senior high teachers have been upgraded remarkably on learning motivation. test strategies, self-management, cognition strategies and metacognition strategies; however, there are no changes on the learning strategies of test Anxiety and seeking resources.

(2) Most teachers who participated the seminar think seminar of guidance knowledge and abilities of senior high teachers will let the useful strategies of learning motivation and self-management lower the test anxiety to acquire general and metacognition strategies, who are then able to understand seeking resources, rehearsal learning, primary deliberated thinking, complicated deliberated thinking, essential organization and complicated organization, so as to realize learning strategies on emotion and encouragement; teachers may then know how to teach students regarding learning strategies on the subjects of English, Math, Physics and Chemistry as well as improve them by

means of evaluating the the improper learning approaches for students.

4. Class guidance for learning strategies:

Class guidance for students on various learning strategies do not have any amazing effects on learning motivation, test strategies, self-management, test anxiety, cognition strategies, metacognition strategies and seeking resources.

5. Group counseling for training of learning strategies:

Group counseling of learning strategies on the various learning strategies for the experimental group, including learning motivation, test strategies, self-management, cognition strategies and metacognition strategies all have the notable effects except for test anxiety.

Suggestions:

1. Scale of learning strategies could be promoted, revised or researched.

2. Promote seminar activities for learning guidance knowledge & abilities to emphasize the guidance knowledge & abilities of senior high teachers.

3. Fulfill class guidance of learning strategies.

4. Guidance of learning strategies would be longer if practiced earlier.

5. Consider individual differences with group guidance.

6. Emphasize self-management and reduce the training of test anxiety.

Cross-Cultural Caring: Global Solutions for Empowering Females

Cheryl Bartholomew is an Associate Professor in the Counseling and Development program at George Mason University, Fairfax, Virginia. She is also author of the **HORIZONS:2000** curriculum and has a private psychotherapy practice.

Jeanne Costello is a Licensed Marriage, Family, Child Counselor and an Instructor in the Women's Studies Department at Monterey Peninsula College, Monterey, California.

Worldwide, girls are devalued and constrained by societal messages and customs. Restricted roles, based on gender and imposed by culture, diminish girls' self-esteem, undermine their ambition and limit their potential. Girls and young women move towards adulthood in social systems which negatively affect them educationally, psychologically and physically.

In America, females are most at risk during adolescence (Gilligan, 1982). The American Association of University Women (1991) revealed that girls emerged from adolescence "with a poor self-image, constrained views of their future place in society and much less confidence about themselves and their abilities" (AAUW, 1991, p.4). Girls start out strong academically but, marginalized in the classroom, fall behind boys by the time they graduate. Additionally, although they are more likely than males to come to school prepared to learn and participate in school activites, girls are the only cohort population who tests higher in self-esteem, achievement and aptitude before entering school than after graduating (National Center for Educational Statistics [NCES], 1995).

In high school, females read and write better than males but perform at lower levels in mathematics and science; females also are less likely to study physics (NCES). According to Sadker and Sadker (1989), girls have less confidence in their mathematical ability as the result of sex typing mathematics as a masculine discipline.

Girls of color face different expectations both in and outside of the classroom. For example, African-American girls maintain higher self-esteem than other female populations in America, but experience a greater drop in academic self esteem. This is due, in part, to lower teacher expectations. Even if they have high ability, African-American females are reinforced less and interact less with teachers than Caucasian girls. When African-American girls are positively reinforced, it is more for "correct" social behavior rather than academics (AAUW, 1991).

Drop in self-esteem and achievement between elementary and high school is even greater for Hispanic girls who enter school with the highest rates of self-esteem (Valenzuela, 1993). For many traditional Hispanic populations, the female role is more subordinate than the male, with motherhood the expected role for all women (Lips, 1997). Motherhood, as the only option, limits choices, denies economic independence to women, and lowers a family's total income.

Female students exhibit lower self-esteem than males during both secondary and post-secondary education. Although, overall, women achieve better grades than men, they are less likely to believe they can do college work (AAUW, 1991). When women do graduate from college, they typically earn less than a male who is a high school drop out; women of color earn even less, averaging approximately 50 percent of the wages earned by white males. Moreover, female recipients comprise only 36 percent of the more than 6,000 National Merit Scholarships awarded each year to support higher education (Sadker & Sadker, 1989). Gender bias in curricula, instruction and financial support pervades American school systems (Sadker & Sadker, 1989) and takes an enormous toll on female students.

Cultural messages and customs also cause women to suffer psychologically and physically in American society. When girls reach adolescence they begin to realize that women are devalued (Perry, 1992). Sexist attitudes remain a major factor. Having been repeatedly told that they are sex objects through advertisements and the media, girls become even more subject to the usual adolescent anxieties about appearance. Today's popular specifications of "blonde and thin" impact most on girls during adolescence when there is an increase in their size and weight. Consequently, eating disorders, such as anorexia and bulimia continue to increase. These diseases are estimated to occur in five to ten percent of adolescent girls and young women at an average age of 11.7 years, with some patients evidencing problems as early as eight years of age (Mokbel, Hodges & Ollendick, 1992). While eating disorders have been found most frequently in middle-class, white, female adolescents in the U.S., they have also been increasing in African-American and Hispanic girls (Thompson, 1994). Society's standards of beauty are in direct conflict with the standards of beauty in their own cultures. Cases of eating disorders also are steadily increasing in the developing world (Lindsey, 1997).

Additional problems for adolescent females occur since pleasing others often translates into having sex. Lacking self-esteem and self-confidence, one in ten teenage girls in America gets pregnant every year. More than 40 percent of adolescent girls who drop out of school do so because of pregnancy (Sadker & Sadker, 1989). By age 20, 44 percent of all girls in the U.S. and 63 percent of Black girls become pregnant at least once. The U.S. has one of the highest birthrates for 15 to 19 year olds among Western industrialized nations. As a result of sexual behaviors during teenage years, the rate of HIV-positive infection is growing rapidly among adolescent girls (Perry, 1992).

Psychologically, American women are twice as likely as men to experience major depression. The reasons for female depression are less biological than cultural. Menstruation, pregnancy, abortion and menopause were found to be only modestly associated with severe emotional distress (Gladwell, 1990). Poverty, unhappy marriage, reproductive stress and sexual and physical abuse are stronger factors than biology. Specifically, approximately 40% of women in the U.S. will be victims of spousal abuse at some point in their lives (Gladwell, 1990). Women are more depressed than men primarily due to their experience of being female in the American culture (Modbel, Hodges & Ollendick, 1992).

As in the United States, societal roles and restrictions throughout the world which are based on gender impede women's educational, social and psychological growth. Although there has been an increase in female literacy globally, "two-thirds of the illiterate people in the world are women and, in

17 countries, 90 percent or more of the female population is illiterate" (Jacobsen, 1994, p. 449). "Low literacy rates have a common denominator in poverty and women's low status in the household" (Sivard, 1995, p. 21). School is often optional or considered not necessary for girls who may take on domestic responsibilities, subsistence farming or, upon marriage, move in with their husband's family. In many developing countries, schools are not located close to rural areas making it impossible to attend. Further, in more conservative cultures, parents may be unwilling to expose traditionally sheltered daughters to higher education at coeducational universities (Sivard, 1995). Practices which keep females from attaining education relegate them to low paying jobs and high unemployment, often resulting in poverty for themselves and their children. As a result, girls often have lower aspirations for their lives. Lack of education for women hurts all societies by eliminating an important resource for a productive economy.

Globally, the control of women's sexuality and violence against women in the form of spousal abuse, rape, and incest destroys self-esteem, creativity, and leaves girls and women feeling hopeless, with little belief in themselves and their own futures. Domestic abuse is considered the world's most common form of violence, brutalizing millions of women in almost every culture. It is estimated that one-fourth of the world's women are severely abused in their own homes, and although in every socioeconomic level, it is linked to poverty and lack of education (Sivard, 1995). Cultural practices like female genital mutiliation physically and psychologically affect more than 100 million young African, Asian, and Middle Eastern females (Sivard, 1995). This practice can result in hemmorhage, infections, long-term complications, obstructed labor, and even death. Societal messages and customs resulting in depression, unwanted pregnancies, drug and alcohol use, eating disorders, low self-esteem, and limited aspirations are universal women's issues confronting all contemporary societies.

HORIZONS:2000 (Bartholomew, 1993) "Career and Lifeplanning Curriculum" is a unique, developmental program which is designed specifically to address the concerns of females today (ages 10 through adult). The curriculum is an educational program which focuses on enhancing females' self esteem, exploring attitudes towards women's roles in society, recognizing and confronting limitations caused by stereotypes, and exploring non-traditional career and lifeplanning choices and consequences. The overall goal of the curriculum is to promote female wellness through the lifespan. Specific components include: cultural influences, identity formation, gender roles, mentors, networking, and lifeplanning exploration. **HORIZONS:2000** has been field tested and is currently being taught throughout the United States and in three different countries (South Africa, Canada and Australia).

The developmental framework of the **HORIZONS:2000** curriculum is based on the career development theory of Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrod and Herma (1951). Ginzberg and his associates recognized the link between vocational choices and adolescent development. They defined the career choice process in terms of three stages: Fantasy, Tentative, and Realistic.

During the Fantasy stage, **HORIZONS:2000** activities focus on self-exploration, awareness of traditional and non-traditional roles, and societal influences on both females and males. Tentative stage activites encourage students to examine personal interests, talents, abilities, attitudes toward success, and expectations for the future. Students explore a wide variety of career options and xamine the implications of their decisions. In the final Realistic stage, students begin to crystallize heir career life and to communicate choices with their families. **HORIZONS:2000** provides nonraditional role model and mentor programs to help enhance students' awareness of traditional and on-traditional occupations and to assist development in the practical skills needed for career and ifeplanning.

Student worksheets are color-coded to correspond with the developmental stages through which students progress. Fantasy, Tentative, and Realistic stages are represented by light-orange, mid-orange, and dark-orange, respectively, with special emphasis given to the developmental needs of female students.

In the 5th and 6th grade, communication with parents and male and female peers is emphasized. This is intended to establish a strong base and supportive network for students in order to assist them through the more "difficult" years of adolescence. Research reveals that girls' self esteem begins to fall substantially during the 7th and 8th grades and continues to drop thereafter (AAUW, 1991). Thus, the focus of the 7th and 8th grade curriculum is on building students' self-esteem and awareness of talents and abilities. In the 10th and 11th grade curriculum, non-traditional careers and female role models are emphasized to help prevent girls from dropping out of advanced math and science courses and thus limiting their career options and potential. Life planning and practical skills for adulthood are emphasized in the 12th grade to help girls successfully make the transition from school to adult life.

The author's goal is to empower young women by increasing their self-awareness and self-esteem so they can answer the questions "Who am I?"; "What do I want?", and "How do I get there?" Upon completion of the curriculum, young women will have expanded their horizons, developed pride in their abilities and learned the skills with which to command their future.

Girls of all ages, from diverse backgrounds, need programs like **HORIZONS:2000** to develop their self-esteem and self-confidence in order to confront and change negative, cultural practices. As educators and counselors, we must promote gender-equity and provide educational funding to implement gender-fair programs to challenge stereotypic messages which are projected throughout much of the world. By challenging gender stereotypes, counselors and teachers can influence the ways in which schools deliver education and ensure gender-equal treatment of students.

Educating and empowering females, across all cultures, will result in confident young women who have a clear vision for their future. Eliminating restrictive societal roles will enable women to utilize their skills and abilities, participate productively in a global, technological age, and make positive contributions to society.

References

American Association of University Women. (1991). *Shortchanging girls, shortchanging America.* Washington, D.C.

Bartholomew, C.G. (1993). **HORIZONS:2000** Career and lifeplanning curriculum. Fairfax, VA: George Mason University Press and Los Angeles: JALMAR Press.

Gilligan, C. (1982). *In a different voice: Women's conception of self and morality.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Ginzberg, E., Ginsburg, S.W., Axelrod, S. & Herma, J.L. (1951). *Occupational choice: An approach to a general theory.* New York: Columbia University Press.

Gladwell, M. (1990). Women and depression: Culture called a key factor. *Washington Post,* December 6.

Jacobsen, J.P. (1994). *The economics of gender.* Cambridge, MA: Blackwell.

Lips, H.M. (1997). *Sex and gender: An introduction..* Mountain View, CA: Mayfield

Mokbel Nassar, C., Hodges, P., & Ollendick, T. (1992) Self-concept, eating attitudes, and dietary patterns in young adolescent girls. *The School Counselor,* 39, pp. 338-343.

National Center for Educational Statistics (1995). Washington, D.C.

Perry, N. (1992). Why it's so tough to be a girl. *Fortune,* August 10, p. 82.

Sadker, M., Sadker, D., & Donald, M. (1989). Subtle sexism at school. *Contemporary Education,* 60(4), pp. 204-212.

Sivard, R.L. (1995) *Women...a world survey.* Washington, DC: World Priorities.

Thompson, B.W. (1994). A way outa no way. In Estelle Disch (Ed.), *Reconstructing gender: a multicultural anthology,* pp. 150-163. Mountain View, CA: Mayfield

Valenzuela, A. (1993). Liberal gender role attitudes and academic achievement among Mexican-origin adolescents in two Houston inner-city Catholic schools. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences,* 15(3), pp. 310-323.

Understanding the Relationship Between Learning Style and Multiculturalism for School Counselors

Audrey H. Hurley, Ed.D

Dr. Hurley is on the faculty at San Francisco State University. She coordinates the School Counseling Specialization. She is also a member of the faculty for the newly established Marian Wright Edelman Institute for the Study of Families and Children . She has extensive experience in the public schools and gained national recognition as a teacher, counselor and administrator . She now is a counselor educator at or at SFSU.. (most likely the #1 university of multicultural diversity)

A major concern that educators, counselors and parents face in the U.S. and throughout the world has to do with the costs and consequences of the high number of at-risk and dropout minority students. They are also the concerns that face the government and community agencies that deal with escalating crime rates and welfare costs.

Recent research indicates that many at-risk and dropout students learn best in a processing style and with instructional strategies that differ significantly from those of young people who tend to perform well in a conventional classrooms.

The intent of this paper and talk will be to explore my hypothesis that school counselors must know the implications of multicultural students' varied learning styles for both counseling and teaching. They will then be able to better assist both the children with whom they counsel and the classroom teachers of these children.

This will ultimately assist counselors and educators in successfully reversing under achievement among culturally diverse students and will assist multicultural adolescents with diverse learning styles to enjoy learning more, develop confidence in their ability to master new and difficult information, and to discipline themselves while learning.

I will offer an opportunity for participants to discover their own individual learning style, and to examine their beliefs about how diverse students learn.

Researchers have compared the learning style of underachievers regardless of ethnicity (Andrews, 1990; Dunn & Griggs, 1988) and learning style of various special education populations (Bauer, 1991) Underachievers in each group revealed essentially similar learning style traits and those different significantly from gifted students. A study in 1993 found that the learning style of GATE (Gifted and talented) students in math were essentially similar across cultures as were the learning styles of gifted students in literature and those gifted in art, music, dance, drama and sports. These studies also found that gifted adolescents within each talent area tended to reveal essentially similar styles, and that the learning style of each gifted group was found to be different from learning style of every other gifted group.

A great amount of the research done in this area has been done by Dr. Rita Dunn and Dr. Shirley Griggs of St. John's University in Jamaica, NY. With the support of the university, they have become the foremost authorities in the area of learning style preference theory and research., Most of the material for this paper was possible because of the large amount of literature available through both Dr. Dunn, Dr. Griggs and St. John;s University

Changing demographics in the US schools indicate that within the next five years, the current minority population will have become the current majority in 53 major US cities. Many grants have provided huge sums of money for a variety of new programs for low achieving minority students. Very few of these new programs have shown any significant improvement in these students' standardized achievement test scores, and even fewer have examined the relationship between learning style and these test scores.

The few schools that show sound statistical evidence of increased achievement gain in the African-American students are schools that have implemented a learning style program that addressed how the low achievers most preferred to learn. (Dunn 1995)

A particular school in North Carolina in 1985 and 1986 had achievement scores only in the 30th percentile on the Calif. Achievement Test of Basic Skills (CTBS). After only 1 year of teaching students about the learning style strength, adjusting environment to permit alternate lighting and seating, and introduction to actual instruction responsive to those with tactile preference, the School has moved to the 40th percentile on the same test. After two years of the program, with reading and math taught in the afternoon and with small group instruction along with rest of program, scores moved up to the 75th percentile. And finally after 4 years, the school scored in the 89th percentile after taking the same test. During the same period African -American students in North Carolina consistently scored in the 20-30th percentile, whereas at the School this same population scored at 70 percentile or better.

Does the fact that these students scored statistically higher achievement scores only after LS instruction suggest they had previously not been taught correctly? Do these changes indicate that some students learn perhaps differently than how others in the US learn?

Before providing some answers on how student s learn and why some succeed where others faill, I would like you to confront and consider your own beliefs about how students learn, and why some succeed when others fail..

Questionnaire on Learning Style and Multiculturalism, (Dunn & Griggs, 1995)

Consider the following questions carefully. At the end of each sentence, circle or write what you believe is the most accurate answer. After answering all the questions, compare your answers with the ones I will provide at the conference.

In the questionnaire "learning" refers to how individuals concentrate on, process, and remember new and difficult information; and "significantly" refers to statistically measurable differences.

Questions

1. Do most people in one culture learn differently from most people in another culture? yes___ no___
2. Do most people in the same culture learn in basically the same way? yes___ no___
3. Do boys and girls learn differently from each other? yes___ no___
4. Do high and low achievers learn differently from each other? yes___ no___
5. Is there a relationship between how someone learns and being gifted? yes___ no___

6. Does learning style contribute to under achievement? yes___ no___

7. Do children and adults learn differently? yes___ no___

8. Do the *majority* of students (K-12) learn best by listening?___ _by reading?____by taking notes?____by experiencing?___

How large is the largest group that learns best through any of the above modalities?____

9. Can a low auditory and low visual student become an A, B+ or B student in conventional schools? yes___ no___

10. (a) Do a *majority* of students (K-12) learn best through cooperative learning? yes___ no___ (b) Who does?____ (c) Who doesn't?_____ (d) How do we know?____

11. (a) Do a *majority* of students learn best in early morning? yes___no___ (b) Who learns best early in the morning?_____ (c) Who learns best at night?_____

12. Are people with one learning style more or less intelligent than people with another learning style? yes____ no____

13. (a) Are the majority of students "analytic" (step-by-step sequential) learners? yes____ no____ (b) What is the opposite of being analytic? ____ (c) Name another processing style____ (d) Are people with one processing style more or less intelligent than people with another? yes____ no____

14. Are the majority of teachers "analytic" (step-by-step sequential) instructors? yes____ no____

15. Are there differences among culture concerning attitudes toward school and teachers? yes___ no___

16. How do selected learning-styles elements change based on growth and development?

17. Is it necessary to consider an adolescents' learning style when selecting various counseling techniques and interventions? yes____ no____

18. Identify a counseling approach that accommodates analytic students and another that accommodates global students.

Intro. to the Concept of Learning Styles

According to Dunn and Griggs, learning style is the way in which each of us concentrates, processes and retains new and difficult information. To determine an individual's learning style traits, we must use a comprehensive instrument — one that will diagnose many different traits. The instrument that has the highest reliability and validity and is used most in research on learning style is the Dunn, Dunn & Price Learning Style Inventory (Dunn, Dunn, and Price Learning Style Inventory, 1989). It is not possible to identify student's learning style traits correctly without an instrument, because some traits are not observable even to an experienced educator.

The theoretical basis from the Dunn & Dunn models emerged in the 70's. The theory of brain laterialization demonstrated that the left hemisphere of the brain was associated with verbal and sequential abilities and the right hemisphere dealt with emotions and with spatial, holistic processing. This theory continues to be debated–it is clear that we concentrate, process and remember new and difficult information under very different conditions. (Dunn and Dunn 1992).

Auditory and visual perceptual strength, passivity, and self-oriented or authority-oriented motivation, often correlate with high academic achievement. On the other hand tactile and kinesthetic strengths--a need for mobility, nonconformity and peer motivation--often correlate with low academic achievement. (Dunn & Dunn, 1993)

Cognitive style theory suggests that individuals process information differently, based on either learned or inherent traits. Manyof the Dunn & Dunn researchers throughout the world looked at variables of field dependency/independence, global/analytic, simultaneous/ successive and/or left or right preference processing. They then went on to research whether relationships existed between these cognitive dimension and student characteristic that appeared to be more or less responsive to environment, emotions, social and psychological stimuli. This research found that selected variables often clustered together.

Relationships appeared to exist between learning that happened with few or no interruptions in a quiet environment with bright lights, in formal seating with little or no intake as being an analytic left.. Conversely, adolescents who often requested "breaks" while learning, and preferred concentrating in an informal, softly lit and sound packed environment with snacks, revealed high scores as global right processors.(Dunn & Bruno, 1990)

When information is presented step by step, analytics learn best ; while understanding the concept first and details later is found to be the best way globals learn. Most important here is that research tell us that both types can reason but they do it using different strategies. (Dunn, Dunn and Price, 1995)

So where is all this going and what does this have to do with counseling? Speaking from my experience as a public school teacher, administratier, director of guidance and counselor and now as a school counselor educator and university professor and considering the extensive amount of research by Dunn and Price, I would like to hypothesize this notion . I would suggest that unless the concept of learning style preference and the multicultural implicatiion is integrated into the school counselor training and required competencies in our universities so they may use this knowledge in their work, they will not be able the counsel and assist the underachieving "at risk" student population that so desperately needs their counsel.

This population is the group with whom school counselors and others who work with children and adolescents more often devote e most of their time. Failure to achieve in school is at the top of the list of indicators for adolescent substance abuse, at -risk behavior for "dropping out", and for low academic motivation and achievement . (Hurley, 1993)

Counselors and therapists using the DDLSI (Dunn and Dunn Learning Style Inventory, 1989) could begin to assist adolescents and children in determining their learning style preference with appropriate interventions that will help to assist in an understanding of a student's strengths, and how to manage and make accommodations for their diagnosed weaknesses.

A school counselor must be seen as a proactive proponent of this concept; seeking to integrate this concept in to the overall culture of the school, assisting with training of faculty, administering the DDLSI to students and teachers, and following up with meetings with student and parents to explain the material, and implement strategies for accommodation.

Like education, school counseling programs are in a state of crises (most especially in California) due to horrendous cutbacks in budget and personnel. Student personnel services are the first reduced and school counselors need to be accountable and demonstrate that their programs and services make a difference. What better evidence of this than to be able to show statistics such as the school in NC which implemented a learning style preference program that reflected significantly improved achievement scores.

Some educational leaders are recognizing that the process of learning is critically important . To help student learn to love learning by nurturing student self concept, independence, locus of control and positive attitudes toward school, should be the major mission of al school counselors. (Krumbolz, 1988).

Counseling is an interactive learning process between counselor and counselee. It should assist the counselee in the understanding of self and others, and the environment in which they function, and result in positive changes in behavior and attitudes. There are over 250 conceptuallly distinct approaches to counseling (Parlass 1980). They all differ in terms of many aspects: diagnosis, technique, philosophy, assumptions, personality constructs. Most counselors use a systemic eclecticism. The majority of these approaches have been designed for use with children and adolescents whose developmental needs are different from those of adults. These children/adolescents require approaches that are compatible with their particular ability to absorb, process and retain information. Counseling approaches based upon individual and multicultural learning style preferences is a possible model for use with this population.

It is my intent to share the research concerning multiculturalism and its relationship to learning style, and how that relationship can be used by school counselors to assist many of the "at risk" students that they see regularly.

In closing I would like to quote Drs. Dunn and Griggs who suggest that:,

> ...."There is no such thing as a cultural-group style. There are cross-cultural and intracultural similarities and difference among all peoples, and those differences are enriching when understood and channeled positively. By recognizing the wealth of diversity among us and our students and clients, educators and counselors can enhance learning and living for those adolescents with whom we come into contact— and for all the people with whom each of them interacts forever thereafter."

References

Andrews, R.H. (1990), July-September) The developments of a learning styles program in a low socioeconomic, underachieving North Caroline elementary school. *Journal of Reading, Writing, and Learning Disabilities International* (New York: Hemisphere Publishing Corp.), 6(3), 307-314.

Bauer, E. (1991). The relationships between and among learning styles perceptual preferences, instructional strategies, mathematical achievement, and attitude toward mathematics of learning disables and emotionally handicapped students in a suburban junior high school. Doctoral dissertation, St. John's University. 1991. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 53, 1988A.

Bouwman, C (1991). *Viva la difference: A guide to learning for high school students.* New York:: Center for the Study of Learning and Teaching Styles, St. John's University

Dunn, R. Dunn,K., & Price, G.E. (1989). *Learning Style Inventory manual.* Lawrence, KS: Price Systems.

Dunn, R. & Griggs, S.A.., (1995). *Multiculturalism and Learning Style--Teaching and Counseling Adolescents,* Westport, CT: Praeger.

Griggs, S. A., (1991). *Learning Styles Counseling.* Ann Arbor, MI: ERIC Counseling & Personnel Services Clearing House.

Griggs, S.A., (1988, Sept.-Oct...). *High School Dropouts: Do they learn differently from those student who remain in School? The Principal* (New York: Board of Jewish Educators of Greater New York), 34 (1), 1-8

Hale-Benson, J., (1982). *Black Children: Their roots, culture and learning styles..* Baltimore: John's Hopkins University Press.

Hurley, A, (1993). The relationships of adolescents perceptions of attitudes of their peer, parent, school and community toward adolescent alcohol use and abuse and the actual adolescent level of use. Doctoral dissertation, University of San Francisco, 1991. *Dissertation Abstracts International,* 64, 1994A.

Krumboltz, J. (1988) The key to achievement:: Learning to love learning. In G. Walz (Ed), *Building strong school counseling programs* (pp. 1-40). Alexandria. VA: American Association for Counseling and Development..

Parloff, M.B. (1980) *Psychotherapy and research.* Frieda Fromm-Reichman memorial lecture, Washing University School of Psychiatry, St. Louis, MO.

Pena, R. (1989). *Two-of-a-kind learning styles..* New York: Center for the Study of Learning and Teaching Styles, St. John's University.

Intimacy and Technology

Donald G. Hays, Ph.D.
Professor of Education
University of La Verne

The world is moving toward and embracing high technology. We can hold back technology about as well as we can hold back the ocean's tides. The term "technology," as used in this context, means various forms of electronic communication and interaction. There is a need to communicate and to interact with others on a planet that seems to be getting smaller with each passing year. At the same time we are experiencing personal alienation and isolation because of the advances in technology. Brook and Boal (1995) indicated that "the appeal of technologies often expresses values like control, efficiency, utility, speed, and power—values that are too often detrimental to a human life." Therefore, embracing technology presents us with a dilemma. On the one hand technology is helping to "shrink" the world thus bringing people closer together and on the other hand this same technology drives many people apart.

We gain greater intimacy via some forms of technology while we alienate ourselves from those who are physically closest to us. An example of this dilemma may be seen in a personal vignette. My son and daughter-in-law decided to adopt a Korean child. Last September they told me to go online via the Internet to see my new grandchild. Following their instructions, not only was I able to see but also I was able to print out a colored photo and a brief description of the child who was soon to be my grandchild. I had mixed emotions about this impersonal activity. I welcomed seeing my future grandson, but I would rather hold him in my arms! Fortunately, the day came when this was possible.

We are able to communicate with anyone living anywhere in the world. We have digital translators that allow us to communicate with all manner of people regardless of what language is spoken. At the same time, we isolate ourselves from those we live with daily because we are online with someone else. When we are online, we are either in a chat room, browsing the web or interacting via e-mail. All the time spent doing this keeps us from being intimate with those who are often the ones we need to maintain and/or enhance a positive relationship. Among the various observations Stoll (1995) made in his provocative book Silicon Snake Oil: Second Thoughts on The Information Highway, he suggested that "networks isolate us from one another and cheapen the meaning of actual experience; they work against literacy and creativity...and the medium is being oversold, our expectations have become bloated, and there's damned little critical discussion of the implications of an online world." Recently in an appearance to benefit the Tech Museum of Innovation in San Jose, California, Ray Bradbury (1996), the renowned science-fiction novelist, suggested that we stay away from the Internet. The Internet is good for some practical things, he indicated, but it can't offer the intimate and aesthetic experience of books. "You've got to be able to take a book to bed with you. You can't get that on the Internet. You can't hold the Internet."

Scott Adams (1996), the creator of the comic strip "Dilbert" noted that in the workplace we live in cubicles, creating barriers from others—a reality version of Toffler's (1970) proposed "electronic cottage." We have extended the cubicle concept into our homes. We have developed our own home electronic cubicle, complete with FAX, modem, copier, computer, VCR, and cellular phone among other "gadgets." We pull the walls of our nest in around us like a warm blanket, go online and forget the real world as we enter a virtual world in cyberspace. The lure of the Internet is so great that people have been known to go without eating, sleeping, and addressing other bodily needs in order to maintain contact with the special someone who is "out there."

Roos (1993) reported that Sweden and Finland are the biggest users of cellular technology. They have the most mobile telephones per 1000 inhabitants (70), while the United States follows with about 25 per 1000, the United Kingdom with about 20, and Japan, Germany, and France about 10. Roos indicated that one explanation for the Finnish people to use this technology is their uneasiness in close personal and social communication. A basic human need is a sense of belonging. Yet, some people do not enjoy being too close. Technology may serve them well. There are pockets of the world where this technology seems to have gone astray. On a recent visit to Hong Kong, it appeared that every one on the streets had a cellular phone attached to his/her ear! What a way to ignore people around you. The message being imparted is "I'm on the phone, don't bother me!" It is interesting that innovations of technology were to address human curiosity and to ease life's struggles—to have more free time to develop relationships with those close to us. How many times have you had to wait in an establishment while the person who is supposed to wait on you is on the telephone, or is interrupted to answer the telephone—thus ignoring you while being intimate with a voice? How many times have you been in a telephone conversation when the other person interrupts because of call waiting capabilities?

What has happened is that technological change developed more rapidly than anyone suspected and we were and are unprepared for it. At one time the concept of man versus machine was resolved with man assuming the upper hand. An analogy of a pilot "flying by the seat of his pants" meant that he or she had control of the aircraft and directed it to do his/her bidding. As a former fighter pilot, I recall flying a jet without the aid of a hydraulic system requiring me to "muscle" the plane through the skies. Later, I flew a newer version of that same aircraft *with* the aid of hydraulics. No longer did I have total control—the machine began to assume control. I was matching wits with the machine, and unless I was particularly careful, I knew the machine would win! While technology has given us great gifts and made our lives easier in many respects, Talbott (1995) argued that "these machines subtly shape and inevitably limit human consciousness." We no longer have absolute control over our lives—we have allowed the machine—technology, if you will—to assume much that we have traditionally addressed and were able to manage! It is necessary for us to manage technology humanistically—meaning that we cannot ignore the need for intimacy.

We are living in a shrinking world that is causing us to give serious thought to the viability of a sustainable planet. With an increasing population, we need to use technology to ensure that we will survive and prosper. But with the need for more and better technology we have to recognize the pluses and minuses. Of utmost concern is the future of personal relationships. Naisbett (1982) spoke to the issue of high tech/high touch in his first book. He conjectured that with increasing high technology there would have to be increasing high touch—the ability to maintain a close personal relationship required by the human species. It is this focus that caring in the age of technology is such a vital issue.

It was Hage & Powers (1992) who explored the meaning of the post-industrial transformation for our work roles and personal relationships. They said that "role definition is one of the truly ubiquitous features of contemporary social life." It is the current pattern of technological change and the growth of knowledge that is impacting both our social roles and ourselves. As a result, the definitions of behavior, duties, and obligations are becoming more open then ever before. Again, we have a dilemma. We see our roles more clearly and we are not sure we like them. We may need to redefine our roles in light of technology. Role relationships are becoming less routine, more personalized, and more conflict-ridden due to disagreements over what is expected. They concluded with a plea for sociologists to focus more on knowledge growth as the engine of social change (rather than wealth and power), which in turn makes roles more complex, implicates people in less standardized interaction, and prompts people to enter more complex networks. And intimacy may suffer.

It is through some of these networks that we are beginning to recognize a new phenomena of online romances in which two people become intimate without knowing each other. Granted, there is the excitement of the unknown but at the same time there is the fear of intimacy. In a letter to personal and social columnist Ann Landers, a man wrote:

> "My wife of 18 years left me for a guy she met online. We had a good marriage (I thought), a paid-for-house, a cabin in the mountains and two great kids. There was no hint of trouble until she began to stay up until 3 a.m. chatting online with a man in New Hampshire. Last week when I came home from work, I found a note saying she went to meet 'Johnny' and I shouldn't worry. She promised to call me 'soon,' and oh, yes—she wanted me to know she withdrew $5,000 from our joint bank account."

Hopefully, this is not a typical event, but following up on the content found in letters of this nature, indicated that there was more there than we might suspect. Just recently a noted counselor educator 80 years young, attended the wedding of his daughter who first met her future husband in a "chat room somewhere in cyberspace (to my dismay at the time)." From his written communication to his friends, it appears all is well but we wonder about this type of personal engagement. One aspect of online romances which may be either a plus or a minus, is that if one wants to end the romance, one only need to hit the delete button!

To become intimate in an age of technology, to develop intimate personal relationships, requires time. Technology was to provide us with more free time. Yet, Schor (1994) spoke to this issue when she stated:

> "This nation is now experiencing a profound crisis in time. This crisis is showing up in the well-being of American families who are finding themselves without enough time, and in the well-being of our communities, where time available for volunteering, care for our sick and elderly, and for other kinds of social supports is also in decline. A crisis of time has

> appeared in our workplaces, where long hours of work for a growing number of employees are leading to a very serious toll on the quality of life of these people."

We have become a nation of what Burns (1993) called the "Busy Body or BB factor....the most harried people on earth." He cited ten trends in which the BB factor has made an impact: religion, arts, love, eating, housework, children, services, thinking, politics, and social relations. With regard to the last trend, social relations, Burns indicated that social commitments require time and as time becomes scarce, the BB factor leads to superficial relationships, weakened commitments (to aged parents, friends, spouses), the rise of "me-ism" and selfishness, rudeness (courtesy is time-expensive), and insularity.

Intimacy is the condition of being intimate and being intimate means a variety of things but within the context of this paper it means being very personal and close to another person in a loving and caring relationship. The relationship also could be sexual. There is a need for humans to establish an intimate relationship with another human whether it is a platonic, loving, or sexual relationship. It is part of the human condition to want to connect with another being. For some, however, connecting long distance is often more intimate than connecting with one who is physically close by. Slouka (1995) commented that "The new global citizen may actually turn out to be a new kind of exile—an electronic wanderer wired to the world but separated from much that matters in human life." We may very well become like Star Trek's "Borgs," devoid of any human emotions, that which forms both the dilemma and the challenge of the human condition. We want the sense of the "touchy/feely" concept but we are afraid of it. It is the cognitive versus the affective and it is acceptable to be intimate as long as there is a machine existing between the participants. We create a facade of being intimate without being intimate. We are living in Dilbert's Cubicle.

Another form of isolationism impacting primarily our youth, or at least the child in each of us, is the video game. "Nintendo," according to Provenzo, Jr. (1991), "represents much more than just a video game system; it is also a profound cultural and media phenomenon." Most can observe the behavior of those who play video games, especially the portable kind, by the total concentration to the machine and little awareness of the world around them. "Research on video games indicates that while they probably do not contribute significantly to deviant behavior, they do increase aggressive behavior of the individuals who play them, at least in the short-term." The intimacy is in the game. The player has entered one's own cubicle and becomes alienated to the reality surrounding him or her. What is fantasy in the cubicle becomes acting out behavior in reality. One believes that one can do anything and become anyone because fantasy allows for it.

Cartwright (1994) reminded us that "virtual reality has been with us for millennia in the form of imagination, literature, theater, and, more recently, film, radio, and TV." He went on to state that "the modern definition of VR has come to mean a computer-mediated, multisensory experience designed to trick our senses and convince us that we are in another world....VR is a way of sensing, feeling, and thinking...." A number of possible implications might occur with VR technology. Among them is the need to reexamine our notions of human consciousness. There is the possibility that a lack of reality contact may lead people into making poor social adjustments and/or creating mental illness. There is the possibilities of disembodiment; that is, creating a virtual ego-center, and thus decentering the self to make it possible to assume more than one identity. Finally, VR technology could bring new kinds of emotional disturbances and mental illnesses characterized by increased loneliness and powerlessness. One's fantasy is heightened in VR. One can play out the fantasy to it's ultimate, at which point the individual is totally into his/her fantasy world and what is fearful is that the fantasy then becomes the individual's reality.

Cellular phones, Internet, video games, virtual reality all point to the dilemma of reaching out to touch someone but in an isolate way. It is in this context that Kidder (1995) argued:

> "that the moral landscape of the 21st century will be shaped by three conditions our ancestors could not have imagined: 1) we will face entirely new ethical issues from new technologies (e.g., protecting software from copying, contraceptives for teenage girls, shipping nuclear waste, cloning ourselves); 2) we will live in an age of increasing moral intensity (once-esoteric concerns such as euthanasia become common, in part aided by the reach of the global news media); 3) we will experience unprecedented pressures to drop out of society and make a separate peace (we will retreat into our shells, or try to respond to 'ethical overload' by longing for a simpler world where moral issues exist in an ordered framework)."

Finally, we must accept the fact that even though technology is here to stay, we need to heed Chin (1996) who raised a serious issue when she wrote that

> "what is frightening, however, is that chances for getting to know people different from ourselves may be diminishing. How can this be? After all, we are now citizens of the 'global village,' where our packages can be delivered to the remotest corners of the world in a day, guaranteed, and we're all linked up through long distance lines, faxes and the Internet. But take a look around: People in cities are putting gates around their 'communities,' ordering takeout and retiring home to their VCR's, using the computer to shop, 'chat' with people and take classes. Is it possible that we are getting closer and further apart at the same time?"

This, then, is the dilemma we face and we, as counselors of the 21st century, will be challenged to help clients live in a highly technological society while maintaining and enhancing their ability to intimately relate to significant others in real time.

References

Adams, S. (1996). The Dilbert principle. New York: HarperBusiness.

Bradbury, R. (3 February 1997). "Bradbury: Avoid net." The Desert Sun.

Brook, J. & Boal, I. A. (Eds.). (1995). Resisting the virtual life: The culture and politics of information. San Francisco: City Lights Books.

Burns, L. (1993). Busy bodies: Why our time-obsessed society keeps us running in place. New York: W. W. Norton.

Cartwright, G. F. (1994). "Virtual or real? The mind in cyberspace," The Futurist, 28(2), 22-26.

Chin, D. (25 May 1996). "The internet ' can only encourage further isolation." Los Angeles Times, B13.

Hage, J. & Powers, C. H. (1992). Post-industrial lives: Roles and relationships in the 21st century. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Kidder, R.M. (1995). How good people make tough choices. New York: William Morrow.

Landers, A. (4 November 1996). "What a tangled web they weave online." Los Angeles Times.

Naisbett, J. (1982). Megatrends: Ten new directions transforming our lives. New York: Warner Books.

Provenzo, E. F., Jr. (1991). Video kids: Making sense of nintendo. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Roos, J. P. (1993). "300,000 yuppies? Mobile telephones in Finland," Telecommunications Policy, 17(6), 446-458.

Schor, J. (1994). "Decline of leisure time in America," Vital speeches of the day, 60(24), 748-752.

Slouka, M. (1995). War of the worlds: Cyberspace and the high-tech assault on reality. New York: BasicBooks.

Stoll, C. (1995). Silicon snake oil: Second thoughts on the information highway. New York: Doubleday.

Talbott, S. L. (1995). The future does not compute: Transcending the machines in our midst. Sebastopol, CA: O'Reilly & Associates.

Toffler, A. (1970). Future shock. New York: Random House.

CONCERNS FOR COUNSELORS IN THE AGE OF TECHNOLOGICAL DANGERS

Marilyn Jacobs Bohan, Ph.D.

Dr. Marilyn Bohan is director of Healthwise Counseling Center in Oregon City, Oregon, U.S.A. She has taught medical and surgical nursing and has a background in community and family health. *Marilyn incorporates a mind-body-spirit philosophy into her practice.* She presents workshops on confronting death, stress redirection, and self-concept building.

> "The point of thinking about perils is not to revel in misery but to work toward helpful responses."
> – Roger Lincoln Shinn

Women more concerned about technological dangers

Technology brings enhancement of life and the environment; it also brings inherent, and often unacknowledged, dangers. The task of technology is to transform knowledge into reasonable applications that serve the well-being of humanity (Pulos, 1996). However, that transformation may not always be benevolent. The hazards of technology are wide-ranging and can include many things, from a hard drive crash to an automobile accident to a nuclear power plant leak to biological warfare. Most dangers to the health of the individual are caused by such technological hazards as food and water contamination, toxic emissions from in-house appliances, air pollution, noise pollution, and the misuse or repetitious use of technology itself (Pilisuk, 1996). Studies indicate that women have greater levels of concern about technological hazards than do men (Pilisuk, 1996) and that this gender based difference may emerge in attitudinal and/or symptomatic responses during counseling (Mintz & O'Neil, 1990). Gender-based social and parenting roles, more specifically the perception of these roles, may be a factor that permits the male/hunter to seek further technological advancements, despite the dangers, while the female/nurturer tends to be the worrier or alarmist.

Worry may cause psychophysiologic disease

Mental and physical reactions to danger appear to increase phobias, anxiety, depression, stress, nervous system and body ailments, as well as the physical symptoms of fear. Not surprisingly, a connection has been drawn between worry and psychophysiologic conditions, formerly known as psychosomatic disorders (Achterberg, 1985). Women have been cited as being more prone than men to psychophysiologic diseases, for example, arthritis, spastic colon, colitis, and allergies (Padus, 1986). Women, as a rule, are more likely to internalize their emotions; stored feelings become stressors and these stressors cause the release of chemicals and hormones which interfere with the body's healing process. This stress reaction may be due to a higher sensitivity to the environment. The sensitivity may become a stressor in itself, and this in turn affects the central nervous, endocrine, and immune systems. Recent research findings indicate an interrelationship between the mind, the nervous system, and the immune system in the disease process. Psychoneuroimmunology points to the mind's influence on the central nervous and endocrine systems and suggests that disease may be promoted whenever the immune system is suppressed (Achterberg, 1986). In allowing worry to produce anxiety, the mind may be stimulating the central nervous and endocrine systems to release hormones and chemicals that suppress the healing process of the immune system, and so the body becomes vulnerable to disease.

There is now a belief that one can gain conscious, inner control of the automatic functions of organs previously thought to be "uncontrollable" (Miller, 1989). This is good news, as heretofore it was thought that only the central nervous system (CNS) could be brought under voluntary control. The involuntary or autonomic (sympathetic/parasympathetic) nervous system (ANS), a branch of the CNS, controls the inner organs. The possibility of conscious control of the ANS is now under review (Brown, 1980). When we bring into awareness our body sounds, our blood and heart pulsations, we can understand, monitor, and change most unhealthy responses to life's challenges. Through monitoring our thoughts, as well as monitoring our body, we can make a healthier mind-body connection. And so this monitoring can become an individual quest for internal mastery and self-knowledge, evolving from one state of awareness to another (Pelletier, 1985; Farthing, 1992), from one emotion to another, from worry to relaxation, from pain to peace, from automatic/spontaneous thought to controlled thought (Brown, 1975).

Worry, a stressor, influences ANS to release hormones and chemicals

Whenever a stressor (such as worry) enters the brain through the cerebral cortex or the hypothalamus, a conscious or an unconscious interpretation is made to release chemicals or hormones. The conscious interpretive network starts in the cerebral cortex, advancing into the limbic system, hypothalamus, and pituitary gland where two chemicals are released (Basmajian, 1989). The pituitary ACTH (adrenocorticotropic hormone) stimulates the cortex of the adrenal gland to secrete corticoids (Thomas, 1993). The TTH (thyrotrophic hormone) stimulates the thyroid gland to release thyroxine. Both these end products, corticoids and thyroxine, enter the organs, muscles, and tissues through the circulatory system to prepare the body for action (Basmajian, 1986). Glucagon from the pancreas beta cells, stored in tissue and liver, is also mobilized for energy. The unconscious and interpretive network, routed through the ANS, can also stimulate the body's reaction to stress. Stress reaction can enter the unconscious interpretive network through the hypothalamus to stimulate the medulla portion of the adrenal glands which secrete adrenaline and noradrenaline hormones. This, in turn, activates organs, muscles, and tissues (Thomas, 1993). There can also be a direct neurological stimulation from the hypothalamus that activates the same organs, muscles, and tissues. The result: organs are bombarded by overactive stimulation from the CNS whenever activating stressors are present. The conscious stress reaction, the unconscious stress reaction, or both may present the fight, fright, or flight feeling, causing internal body distress from the chemical surge.

Immune system needs a relaxed body to counter disease

One of the greatest unaided functions our body is capable of performing is maintaining the balance of the internal network: maintaining homeostasis biochemically. This is the work of the immune system, which keeps the blood chemistry healthy, able to heal itself, in homeostatic harmony (Pearsall, 1987). The immune system has the ability to "recognize 'self' and distinguish it from things that are 'not self' " (Locke & Colligan, 1986, p. 259). In the internal homeostasis of the body, any invading organism or foreign matter tips the scale until the immune system is triggered to eliminate the problematic invader; a natural self-defense mechanism is in place. However, some invaders, such as gases, biologics, insecticides, pesticides, and radioactivity (raditation, gamma rays, beta rays), are often too toxic for the body to ward off. When this is the case, invading foreign substances have long-term effects and may set up organ dysfunction or cancers.

Because the immune system will be suppressed under the firing of the ANS and long-term invading stressors, and because a depressed immune system can promote the advancement of disease, it is important to find "a variety of techniques . . . specific images, positive feelings, suggestions [for] learning to respond to stressors in a relaxed way . . . [thereby] increasing the ability of the immune system to counter disease" (Achterberg, 1986, p. 10). Interestingly, our ability to influence the ANS through the will or through imaging was only discovered in the 1920s and 30s (Brown, 1980). Since that time, however, it has been clear that when we balance the autonomic system, we can control the output of hormones to keep the inner balance -- the homeostasis -- necessary for health. For this reason, clients who exhibit symptoms of stress disease due to sympathetic nerve overstimulation may be amenable to relaxation therapy (Miller, 1989). Relaxation engages the parasympathetic nervous system, which in turn helps regain homeostatic control and diminishes the effects of stress (Basmajian, 1989). However, relaxation must be coupled with another mode such as imagery, as reports indicate that to change the immune system requires more than relaxation therapy (Achterberg, 1985). Persons with a history or tendency towards dysfunctional physiology may use biofeedback technology as a precautionary tool (Fair, 1989), along with imagery for mind control (Achterberg, 1985). With this combination, clients can learn willed and directed control through various relaxation methods. Biofeedback and imagery can also be used to ward off the effects of the ANS stimulation that may produce cardiovascular disease, stroke, heart attack, atherosclerosis, diabetes, or immune system suppression (Adler & Morrissey-Adler, 1989). Visualizing healthy organs, practicing deep breathing, and maintaining positive thinking all contribute to a healthy body (Epstein, 1989). To further voluntary control of the ANS, it is important to help clients develop the self-awareness and self-control needed to perfect these techniques (Brown, 1980). It then becomes necessary for clients to learn relaxation techniques to offset distress created by an overactive sympathetic nervous system. Whether the client is suffering from worry about or effects from technological dangers, the counselor should encourage techniques to control the bodily effects from these stressors.

Control of stressors affecting the ANS necessary for healthy mind and body

It has been suggested in research literature that the greatest modifier of the immune system in response to stress is the amount of control exerted over the stressor (Norris, 1989). The outcome being measured is influenced by whatever the subject is willing or knowingly able to expend (or limit) to control the stressor (Locke & Colligan, 1986). Herein lies the key to altering one's own physiologic and biologic states. If you know you can make yourself sick, then the converse has to be that you can make yourself well (Bohan, 1981). However, this can be done only if one learns to control the mind and body events that are the result of stressors which have triggered the central nervous, the endocrine, and the immune systems to release chemicals and hormones (Gazzaniga, 1985; Lubar, 1989).

Mind and body interactions either confront a stressor with direct action or respond to it with delayed or no outward action (Selye, 1975). Both approaches may be problematic. Whenever the internal body is out of the homeostatic condition, a great many reactions are triggered: the muscles become tense for action, heart rate increases, blood pressure goes up, blood sugar rises, and digestion slows down in an emergency reaction (Miller, 1989). The stress response indicates the stressor has somehow, whether from a real or imagined threat, incited the body systems to react. While this basic survival response is innate and inescapable (Basmajian, 1989), we live in an era where daily physical threats that once required internal alarm systems are not as prevalent. On the contrary, there is need for a calm body and clear mind to meet the psychological stressors of today. In the current body alarm system, when a problem is confronted by attempting to analyze the situation, thereby prolonging the decision process, the release of energy is delayed and the stress remains internal. Repeated repression of internal hormonal surges causes the energy for fight, fright, or flight to be stored as tension, worry, fear, frustration, anger, mental confusion, anxiety, or guilt (Selye, 1975). Thus stress in internalized, striking in at one's self and affecting the weakest organ (Selye, 1975). If this basic response to stressors goes unchecked, stress related disorders soon appear. Herein lies the emotional component to acute and chronic stress illnesses.

Psychological components, as well as physical involvement, even though one may be more dominant than the other, are both present in the disease process (Alexander & Flagg, 1965). The human system that can heal itself must have the arena to do so. As it is, the human internal alarm system is outdated for the twenty-first century, so it becomes necessary to control the system through releasing the excess energy buildup. The fight, fright, or flight energy, which may cause disease, must be released in a civilized way. This needs to be recognized by counselors in order to help the client create a relaxed arena for healing by releasing stored inner tension through appropriate outward action.

Balancing worry with active involvement

When the invading stressor is worry about technological dangers, it may be appropriate to suggest community involvement to clients. Outward action can provide emotional release of tension. As an adjunct to other counseling techniques, encouraging cleints to write letters, join support groups, and raise public consciousness about the dangers technology can pose to human life (as in the recent infant air bag deaths) may help alleviate symptoms activated by the human alarm system. Control of the internal functions, for a mind and body balance through conscious effort, can be a precautionary step toward offsetting disease (Brown, 1980). Hence, the worrying alarmist can learn to handle his/her emotions in order to confront the technological issue that is upsetting.

The impact of computers, telecommunications, artificial intelligence, bio-genetic engineering, atomic energy, birth defects from toxic agents, gaseous and chemical emissions from in-house appliances and furnishings, and the potential environmental dangers from chemical or germ warfare are only a few of the real-world concerns related by clients. For example, with the collapse of the Soviet Union, nuclear "leakage" has begun (Bolsunovsky & Menshchikov, 1995; Bukharin & Potter, 1995):

> Fissile material – the material necessary to make a nuclear bomb – has been stolen from storage facilitiess in Russia and put up for sale. This leakage has already reached alarming proportions and is likely to get much worse as more buyers and sellers of Russian fissile material join the existing black market for weapons – useable plutonium and uranium. (Allison, 1996, p. 23)

The bombing of the World Trade Center in New York City and the Oklahoma federal building brought terrorism into the U. S. Along with terrorism comes the realization that even crude weapons can be weapons of mass destruction. However, the most disabling aftermath of terrorism may be the fear it fosters. Fear becomes the external and the internal enemy: We must control our internal alarm system in order to control fear, even though the threat of more terrorism on U. S. sites is grounds for grave concern. On another front, our so-called "smart bombs," deployed during the Persian Gulf War (PGW), may outsmart us all. We can no longer use short-range strategies without looking to future effects. The long-term effects from the PGW continue to be revealed. Magill estimates "about 5-6 percent of PGW veterans are infected by the parasitic leishmaniaris tropica." The incubation period . . . is from months to years and can foster chronic illness, as well as activate latent infection in immunosuppressed persons" (Institute of Medicine, 1994). As illustrated in the PGW situation, technology can bring us closer to encountering latent pathogens, and yet we need technology in order to find a cure to the many incurable pathogens that currently threaten our survival: ebola virus, hantavirus, marburg virus, human immunodeficiency virus, small pox. And, finally, a once theoretical threat that hung on the horizon like a Jules Verne projection, the red mercury neutron bomb threatens to become a reality (Barclay, 1996). Everywhere, the homeostasis of the body is threatened.

Like parents, we counselors must plan for future generations. The threat to "planetary habitability – even human survival – arises from the depletion of other exhaustible common property resources (such as the ozone layer and the nitrogen cycle) that are not divisible, not exchangeable, and unpriced" (Ayres, 1994, p. 41). As counselors in the twenty-first century, we need to learn from the old-time miner with the canary that detected unseen environmental dangers. In this age, we need to incorporate the roles of miner and canary: a hunter and an alarmist. This can be accomplished by actively parenting the earth in a way that will bring attention to universal well-being before arriving at annihilation. Armed with a healthy, relaxed mind and body connection, the hunter/alarmists may live well and fulfill their role "to balance a faith in technology with other human values" (Pilisuk, 1996).

References

Achterberg, J. (1985). Imagery in healing. Boston: Shambala Publications.

Adler, C. S. & Morrissey-Adler, S. (1989). Biofeedback and psychosomatic disorders. In J. Basmajian (Ed.), Biofeedback, principles and practices for clinicians. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins.

Alexander, F. & Flagg, G. (1965). The pyschosomatic approach. In B. Wolman (Ed.), Handbook of clinical psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Allison, G., Cote, O., Falkenrath, R., & Miller, S. (1995). Avoiding nuclear anarchy. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Ayres, R. (1996, Spring). Technological trends. Phi Kappa Phi Journal, p. 41.

Barclay, M. (1996). Red mercury. West Hollywood, CA: Dove Books.

Basmajian, J. V. (1989). Anatomical and physiological basis for biofeedback of autonomic regulation. In J. Basmajian (Ed.), Biofeedback, principles and practices for clinicians. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins.

Bolsunovsky, A. & Menshchikov, V. (1995, February). Nuclear security is inadequate and outdated. The Monitor: Proliferation, demilitarization, and arms control, pp. 1-2.

Bohan, M. (1981). Psychodrama and the terminal patient: Concepts and application. Unpublished master's thesis, Portland State University, Portland, Oregon.

Brown, B. (1975). New mind, new body. New York: Bantam Books.

Brown, B. (1980). Super-mind, the ultimate energy. New York: Harper and Row.

Bukharin, O. & Potter, W. (1995). Potatoes were guarded better. Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists, 51 (3), 46-50.

Epstein, G. (1989). Healing visualizations. New York: Bantam Books.

Fair, P. L. (1989). Biofeedback-assisted relaxation strategies in psychotherapy. In J. Basmajian (Ed.), Biofeedback, principles and practices for clinicians. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins.

Farthing, G. W. (1992). The psychology of consciousness. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Gazzaniga, M. (1985). The social brain: Discovering the networks of the mind. New York: Basic Books.

Institute of Medicine. (1994). Health consequences of service during the Persian Gulf War: Initial findings and recommendations for immediate action. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Locke, S. & Colligan, D. (1986). The healer within. New York: E. P. Dutton.

Lubar, J. F. (1989). Electroencephalographic biofeedback and neurological applications. In J. Basmajian (Ed.). Biofeedback, principles and practices for clinicians. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins.

Miller, N. E. (1989). Biomedical foundations for biofeedback as a part of behavioral medicine. In J. Basmajian (Ed.), Biofeedback, principles and practices for clinicians. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins.

Mintz, L. & O'Neil, J. (1990). Gender roles, sex, and the process of psychotherapy: Many questions and few answers. Journal of Counseling and Development, 68 (4) 381-387.

Norris, P. (1989). Clinical psychoneuroimmunology: Strategies for self-regulation of immune system responding. In J. Basmajian (Ed.), Biofeedback, principles and practices for clinicians. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins.

Pearsall. P. (1987). Super immunity. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Pelletier, K. R. (1985). Toward a science of consciousness. Berkeley, CA: Celestial Arts.

Pilisuk, M. (1996, Spring). Athena meets Prometheus: Gender differences in concern over technological dangers. Saybrook Perspective. San Francisco: Saybrook Institute.

Pulos, A. (1996, Spring). Humanics. Phi Kappa Phi Journal.

Thomas, C. L. (1993). Taber's cyclopedic medical dictionary. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis.

Selye, H. (1974). Stress without distress. New York: New American Library.

Genetics and Psychology at a Crossroad: A Road Less Traveled?

Vivian Ota Wang, Ph.D.
Counseling Psychology Program, Dept. Educational Psychology
Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey, U.S.A.

Contrary to popular belief, genetic conditions are relatively common. Medical progress in the treatment and prevention of other diseases has meant today in the U.S. America, 3-5% of all pregnancies result in a child born with birth defects. Genetic conditions account for approximately 25% of reported infant deaths, 40% of childhood mortality, and 5-10% of all pediatric hospital admissions. A genetic basis for all hospital admissions ranges from 25-60%. Many chronic diseases, including diabetes, cancer, hypertension, schizophrenia, and some forms of depression have identified genetic contributants (Kelly, 1986). Given the advances in genetic diagnostic technologies, the possibilities for genetic screening and treatment have greatly expanded.

The increasing visibility of genetics within mental and medical health care has been due to the advent of expanding genetic knowledge and technical expertise derived from efforts of the Human Genome Initiative, increasing awareness of genetic diseases, and disproportionate resource allocations for genetic disease treatments due to their chronic nature. Growing knowledge of the genetic nature of diseases has also matured into a recognized specialty of medical practice. From modest beginnings of "genetic hygiene," the field of medical genetics and genetic counseling today have been elevated to departmental status in many tertiary and secondary medical centers.

The advancements in genetic technology and medical interventions have also created new challenges for individuals, families, and society as a whole. For example, pregnancies once assumed normal until proven otherwise are now viewed as high risk for birth defects until ruled out by genetic tests. Due to the availability of genetic technology, a child with a birth defect once considered an unfortunate stroke of fate is now the responsibility of parents. The possibility to predict the risks of developing serious diseases (e.g. breast cancer, diabetes) through genetic technology has also raised ethical dilemmas and unforeseen psychological consequences for those who wish to obtain their genetic information.

Genetic diseases are not homogeneous. Variability exists in gene expression, age of onset, physical and/or mental sequelae. Some genetic conditions are life-threatening, disfiguring, cause progressive degeneration, and difficult to manage; others are benign, innocuous, static, and have unnoticeable daily consequences. Overall, genetic diseases fall under three broad categories according to the age of onset symptoms appear. Genetic conditions manifesting prenatally are essentially untreatable and often abort spontaneously (e.g, Trisomy 18). Perinatal or early childhood presentation of genetic diseases often respond to interventions if diagnosed promptly and treatment compliance is successful. For example, inborn errors of metabolism may be undetected *in utero* because the dysfunctional metabolism is physiologically compensated by the mother during fetal life. The pathology of the genetic disease manifests only after the infant is separated from its mother and must rely on its own defective metabolic resources. Genetic diseases expressed during puberty (e.g., hypertension, diabetes) can be genetically-based or have a genetic component. Most of these diseases are multifactorial with genetic factors and environmental influences contributing to gene expression. Such multifactorial disorders are by far the most common diseases in which genetics plays a role. The fact their development interacts with environmental factors makes them in principle - and to a considerable degree, in practice - more open and responsive to therapeutic interventions although cures are never possible.

Disclosure of genetic information often involves sharing unpleasant, even devastating information to individuals. Clients often learn of poor prognoses, limited if any treatment options, and diminished life expectancy of loved ones. As technology continues to expand and govern genetic knowledge, so does the influence of geneticists, genetic counselors, and psychologists in the lives of people who seek counseling about health issues about themselves, their children, and/or other family members.

Genetic Counseling and the Psychological Meanings of Genetic Disease

For most people, genetic conditions hold particularly negative connotations. People often perceive genetic diseases as irreversible, contagious, chronic, family-linked, and stigmatizing. Genetic conditions also evoke strong emotions of people such as fear, pity, guilt, and anger. The strong ties between cultural and health-related schemas also burden genetic conditions with cultural connotations. For example, depending on the cultural context, parents of children with genetic defects may perceive their child's problems as punishment for their deeds, and for others a test of their faith. Thus, genetic counselors and psychologists must be knowledgeable and aware of the cultural context of themselves and their clients.

Genetic counseling is a psychoeducational process which addresses issues regarding risks of having children with birth defects and/or mental retardation (American Society of Human Genetics, 1975; Kelly, 1986; Leroy, 1993). Within this context, clinicians who practice genetic counseling focus on problems and issues associated with genetic diseases in families. Geneticists impart information about medical diagnostics and management, explore decision-making based on risk perception, examine possible options for coping with recurrence of birth defects, and help individuals and their families make psychological and/or physical adjustments to disabilities (American Society of Human Genetics, 1975; Kelly, 1986; Marks, Heimler, Reich, Wexler, & Ince, 1989). Ideally, genetic counseling focuses on a client's learning, understanding, decision-making, bereavement, and coping issues associated with the occurrence or at risk status for genetic disease.

Genetic counseling essentially involves issues of uncertainty. One consequence of this uncertainty is psychological distress. As Leventhal, Diefenbach, and Leventhal showed (1992), interactions between affect, illness, cognitions, and behaviors can be enormously affected. For example, as a means for coping, genetic at-risk individuals were reported to have disturbing and dysfunctional behaviors (e.g, constant self-surveillance of disease symptoms of themselves and other family members), distress (e.g, extreme anxiety at every benign sign), and survivor guilt (e.g, feelings of ambivalence and culpability when a family member is diagnosed with a genetic disease).

Jemmott, Croyle, & Ditto (1988) have also discussed how people minimize the significance of threatening information through cognitive information processing and cognitive biases. For example, Markova, Forbes, Aledorf, Inwood, Mandalaki, Miller, & Pittadaki (1986) and others (Ekwo, Kim, & Gosselink, 1987; Sagi, Shiloh, & Cohen, 1992; Taylor & Loebel, 1989) showed individuals tended to compare their own situation to more severe cases as a means to minimize health-related information. Sagi et al. (1992) examined the influence of perception and severity of cleft lip and/or palate (cleft lip and/or palate is a multifactorial congenital malformation in which the palate and lip fail to close). They showed that parents of children with a cleft lip and/or palate perceived their child's own birth defect as less severe than they viewed the same birth defect in general.

Risk Perception, Decision-making and Coping with Genetic Diseases

Genetic counseling is psychoeducational-based counseling. Decision-making in genetic counseling straddles the tension between motivated reasoning and a wish for a favorable outcome. When genetic counseling occurs, clients are typically in acute distress. Within this context, complex genetic knowledge, probability principles and recurrence risks, variability of gene expression, and various prophylactic interventions must be clearly conveyed by the genetic counselor to his or her client. Thus, it is not surprising that researchers have demonstrated that genetic decision-making is complicated by the client's inability to understand principles of probability, motivation to have more children (Shiloh & Saxe, 1989), parity and family history (Ekwo, Kim, & Gosselink, 1987) and counselor presentation styles of objective numeric risk information (Kessler & Levine, 1987; Marteau, 1989; Marteau, Plenicar, & Kidd, 1993; McNeil, Pauker, Sox, & Tversky, 1982).

Decision-making associated with genetic information revolves around major life choices. To this end, most people have had no experience and may feel ill-equipped and/or unjustified to make these decisions. Additionally, the gravity of these decisions are embedded in profound moral and interpersonal dilemmas and impact life long decisions for the individual, family members, and future generations such as: child-bearing (having a child (or another child) considered at-risk for a genetic disease); marriage (e.g., consanguinity), and; infertility and/or decreasing genetic risks when both spouses care the same gene for a genetic disease (e.g, artificial insemination). Unfortunately, the distress associated with genetic counseling is in part due to the uncertain and probabilistic nature of genetic information coupled with a misguided presupposition that a decision begins a cascade of consecutive choices. The decision-making process is complex. For example, the genetic counselor and/or client may mistakenly assume that a decision to use prenatal diagnosis implies a choice to terminate the pregnancy of an affected fetus when in fact these are separate decisions. Realistically, a client must decide whether: (1) she should undergo genetic prenatal tests that carry procedural risks; (2) continue or terminate a pregnancy after learning that the fetus is affected or not affected with a genetic disease, and; (3) if the fetus is carried to term, the planning and implementation of the necessary adjuvant therapies to meet the needs of the child and family.

Individual coping strategies are related to an person's lifestyle, experiences with health problems, degree of self-blame, beliefs, and cultural backgrounds. Kessler (1984) has described cognitive coping strategies people use when confronted with issues involving genetic diseases as a means of restoring hope and regaining a sense of personal control. He has argued that people: (1) seek declarative knowledge about the specific genetic disease; (2) develop new coping strategies by making decisions among various choices of action; and (3) become better informed of available technology to minimize their uncertainty and distress (e.g., prenatal diagnosis, bone marrow transplant as a treatment for a disease).

Family dynamics can also influence coping strategies (Kronenberger & Thompson, 1992). Strauss (1988) showed that families holding a more accepting meaning of their child's genetic condition (God's will) displayed better adaptation than families accepting a negative (punishment) meaning. Conversely, Kessler and Bloch (1989) reported how, in the instance of adult onset genetic diseases, dysfunctional families can stigmatize individual family members through preselection - the identification of a asymptomatic family member predicted to become an individual affected with the genetic disease. The results can range from lowered self-esteem, isolation, or in extreme cases suicide.

Implications of Genetic Counseling for Psychology

More and more people are touched by genetic information daily. Even with the technological accomplishments generated by the Human Genome Initiative, genetic information will continue to produce uncertainty. It is this uncertainty that gives rise to many of the complex clinical dilemmas facing genetic and psychology professionals today. How does genetic information influence the development of personality and identity formation of people with genetic diseases compared to individuals at risk? How does knowing genetic information and the potential of having a life-threatening disease influence family relationships and life expectations? Genetic diseases challenge one's understanding who is self. Unlike other diseases that are experienced as ego-alien, genetic conditions are experienced as a constitutional part of one's self. No option exists to diminish this threat by projecting it onto an external cause.

Thus, geneticists and psychologists must move beyond the Cartesian separation of the mind (psychology) and body (genetics) embodied separately in each profession. An integrated mind-body orientation must be adopted which more realistically contextualizes a professional's experiences in hope of better understanding who they are and the people they treat. This approach will allow geneticists to move beyond their psychoeducational stance and view clients more than biological DNA units. This perspective will also free psychologists to go beyond the intrapsychic, existential meanings of identity and integrate a genetic understanding of self as part of the gestalt of identity formation.

Overall, psychologists will need to better attend to the clinical presentation of genetic issues with clients (e.g., individuals, couples and family members who have complex health histories and be at risk for genetic diseases). Given the logistics and training limitations of genetic counselors, psychologists must be prepared to work with individuals, couples and families to explore how the impact of genetic information influences coping, adjustment, and understanding of oneself. They must be open to exploring the intrapsychic issues related to uncertainty, risk perception and decision-making. Genetics and psychology have met at a crossroad. Is the road to be traveled?

References

American Society of Human Genetics (1975). Genetic counseling. American Journal of Human Genetics, 27, 240-241.

Ekwo, E. E., Kim, J. O., & Gosselink, C. A. (1987). Parental perceptions of the burden of genetic disease. American Journal of Medical Genetics, 28, 955-959.

Ekwo, E. E., Seals, B. F., Kim, J. O., Williamson, R. A., & Hanson, J. W. (1985). Factors influencing maternal estimates of genetic risk. American Journal of Medical Genetics, 20, 491-504.

Jemmot, J. B., III, Croyle, R. T., & Ditto, P. H. (1988). Commonsense epidemiology: Self-based judgments from lay persons and physicians. Health Psychology, 7, 55-73.

Kelly, T. E. (1986). Clinical genetics & genetic counseling. (2nd ed.). Chicago, IL: Year Book Medical Publishers.

Kessler, S. (1984). Psychological responses to stresses in genetic diseases. In J. O. Weiss, B. A. Bernhardt, & N. W. Paul (Eds.), Genetic disorders and birth defects in families and society: Toward interdisciplinary understanding (pp. 114-117). New York: Alan R. Liss.

Kessler, S., & Bloch, M. (1989). Social system responses to Huntington disease. Family Process, 28, 59-68.

Kessler, S., & Levine, E. K. (1987). Psychological aspects of genetic counseling IV: The subjective assessment of probability. American Journal of Medical Genetics, 28, 361-370.

Kronenberger, W. G., & Thompson, R. J., Jr. (1992). Psychological adaptation of others of children with spina bifida: Association with dimensions of social relationships. Journal of Pediatric Psychology, 17, 1-14.

Leroy, B. S. (1993). When theory meets practice: Challenges to the field of genetic counseling. In D. M. Bartels, B. S. LeRoy, & A. L. Caplan (Eds.), Prescribing our future - Ethical challenges in genetic counseling (pp. 39-54). New York: Walter de Gruyter.

Leventhal, H., Diefenbach, M., & Leventhal, E. A. (1992). Illness cognition: Using common sense to understand treatment adherence and affect cognition interactions. Cognitive therapy and research, 16, 143-163.

Markova, I., Forbes, C. D., Aledorf, L. M., Inwood, M., Mandalaki, T., Miller, C. M., & Pittadaki, J. (1986). A comparison of the availability and content of genetic counseling as perceived by hemophiliac and carriers in the U.S.A., Canada, Scotland, and Greece. American Journal of Medical Genetics, 24, 7-21.

Marks, J. H., Heimler, A., Reich, E., Wexler, N. S., & Ince, S. E. (Eds.). (1989). Genetic counseling principles in action: A casebook (Birth Defects Original Articles Series, No. 25). Washington, DC: National Center for Education in Maternal and Child Health.

Marteau, T. M. (1989). Framing of information: Its influence upon decisions of doctors and patients. British Journal of Social Psychology, 28, 89-94.

Marteau, T. M., Plenicar, M., & Kidd, J. (1993). Obstetricians presenting amniocentesis to pregnant women: Practice observed. Journal of Reproductive and Infant Psychology, 11, 5-14.

McNeil, B. J., Pauker, S. G., Sox, H. C., Jr., & Tversky, A. (1982). On the elicitation of preferences for alternative therapies. The New England Journal of Medicine, 306, 1259-1262.

Sagi, M., Shiloh, S., & Cohen, T. (1992). Application of the health belief model in a study on parents' intentions to utilize prenatal diagnosis of cleft lip and/or palate. American Journal of Medical Genetics, 44, 326-333.

Shiloh, S., & Saxe, L. (1989). Perception of recurrence risks by genetic counselees. Psychology and Health, 3, 45-61.

Strauss, R. P. (1988). Genetic counseling in the cross-cultural context: The case of highly observant Judaism. Patient Education and Counseling, 11, 43-52.

Taylor, S., E., & Lobel, M. (1989). Social comparison activity under threat: Downward evaluation and upward contacts. Psychological Review, 96, 569-575.

Reentry Difficulty, Life Satisfaction and Psychological Well-Being of Taiwanese Students Who Have Returned from the United States

Hui-Chuan Pai, Ph.D.
University of Florida, U.S.A.
Puli, Taiwan

Abstract. The purpose of this study was to examine relationships among 11 selected factors and reentry difficulty, life satisfaction, psychological well-being of Taiwanese student returnees from the United States. One hundred ninety-one returnees responded to the survey. Results showed that returnees' reentry adjustment were affected by gender, willingness to return home, overall satisfaction with overseas experience, and perceived treatment by home people. At the same time, their adjustment process was also affected by factors such as parental expectations, career considerations, love for the home country, and lifestyle preferences. Meanings of the study and its implications in multicultural counseling are discussed.

Introduction

For decades, intensive research efforts have been and continue to be concentrated on the cultural adaptation of sojourners to a foreign culture. Much less attention has been paid to cultural reentry-- the process of readjusting to one's home culture after an extended sojourn abroad (Austin, 1983, 1986; Martin, 1984). This lack of research interest in cultural reentry may stem from a widely taken perspective that reentry should not be problematic since it is "going home." Wallach and Metcalf (1993) argued that because of this misconception, cultural reentry has become a "hidden problem."

Studies have suggested that regardless of the nature of their sojourn (business or educational purposes, long term or short term), people often change when they move to a different country or culture (Anderson, 1994; Berry, 1990; Gama & Pedersen, 1977; Uehara, 1986a, 1986b). Their changes may be in various ways: physical appearances, values, perspectives, behaviors, lifestyle, and worldviews (Gama & Pedersen, 1977; Hansel, 1993; Kidder, 1992; Saeed, 1987). Given these changes, sojourners' reentry becomes very important not only to returned individuals but also their home countries or cultures. For returnees, the major task may be making a reentry adjustment; for their home countries, the challenge may be dealing with the impacts (political, social, economical, technical, educational, etc.) posed by the returnees. Among all types of returnees, international students and their reentry require particular attention.

The number of international students worldwide is too significant to ignore. According to UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) data, more than one million (1,216,964) post-secondary students were studying in countries other than their own in 1990 (Zikopoulos, 1993). These students are "one of the most important elements of the international knowledge system and the embodiment of the cosmopolitan scientific culture" (Altbach, 1989, p.126) during their sojourn overseas. Their contribution to their home countries becomes immeasurable if they fully utilize their knowledge and skills upon returning home. To ensure a successful utilization of the knowledge, one of the critical elements is a smooth reentry process.

Existing studies indicate that reentry adjustment can be as difficult as, if not more difficult than, the initial adjustment to a foreign environment (Adler, 1981; Martin, 1984). Student returnees may be confronted with "reentry culture shock" (Adler, 1981) or problems such as role strain, identity and value conflicts, changes in lifestyle, lack of privacy, bureaucratic leadership, interpersonal difficulty, jealousy on the part of colleagues, difficulty of finding a job, and inability to apply newly learned knowledge to one's profession in home countries. Some may have to deal with psychological distress such as frustration, anxiety, feelings of loss, disappointment, loneliness, regret, depression, and psychosomatic symptoms such as headaches, stomach problems, and insomnia (Bochner, Lin, & McLeod, 1980; Brabant, Palmer, & Gramling, 1990; Brislin & Van Buren IV, 1974; Gama & Pedersen, 1977; Hansel, 1993; Kidder, 1992; Martin, 1986a, 1986b; Saeed, 1987; Uehara, 1986a, 1986b). As such, identifying and examining factors that may affect returned students' reentry becomes very important. Unfortunately, research on this is limited. The relationship between potential factors and international students' reentry adjustment needs thorough investigation.

The purpose of this study was to increase understanding of the reentry experience of international students by exploring and identifying relationships among selected factors and reentry difficulty, life satisfaction, and psychological well-being of Taiwanese students who have returned home from their study in the United States. The selection of predicting factors was based on findings of previous reentry studies and suggestions given by scholars in cross-cultural research (Anderson, 1994; Martin, 1984). The selection of Taiwanese students from the United States as the population of interest was based on the fact that for decades the United States has hosted the largest number of international students, and that a significant number of Taiwanese students study in the United States and return home upon graduation (Davis, 1995; National Youth Commission of Taiwan, 1994). Using this returnee group as subjects can provide an adequate research sample size to enhance the understanding of reentry.

Method

The methodology of this study including participants, sampling procedure, relevant variables, instrumentation, data collection and analyses are as follows:

Participants and sampling procedure

To be included in this study, participants had to have attended an academic institution in the United States, had to have lived in the United States for at least one year, and had to have returned to Taiwan after their overseas study. The researcher located potential participants by accessing the Internet site of the National Youth Commission of the Taiwanese government. During January and February 1996, 427 Taiwanese students (207 male and 220 female) who had returned from the United States were located and invited through the mail and telephone calls to participate. As a result, 191 returnees (94 male, 97 female) participated in the study. The overall return rate was 44.7% (45.4% for males, 44.1% for females).

Relevant variables

Three dependent variables were examined in this study: (1) reentry difficulty– level of readjustment difficulty, (2) life satisfaction– overall satisfaction with life, and (3) psychological well-being– returnees' mental health, measured by levels of depression or the lack thereof. Eleven independent variables were selected for the study, including four background factors (gender, age, academic level, field of study), four overseas factors (time spent overseas, overall

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

satisfaction with overseas experience, willingness to return home, reentry reasons), and three reentry factors (time since return, change of home society/environment, and perceived treatment by home people).

Instrumentation

The Reentry Difficulty Scale was developed by the researcher to measure returnees' reentry difficulty (coefficient alpha= .79). The scale's 16 statements describe potential problems that may be experienced by returnees upon their reentry, problems concerning physical health, career, self identity, family and interpersonal relationships. Participants were asked to agree or disagree with each statement using a 7-point Likert scale(1= strongly disagree, 7= strongly agree). The possible total score range is 16 to 112, with higher scores indicating higher levels of reentry difficulty, and lower scores indicating lower levels.

The Satisfaction With Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) was used to assess returnees' levels of life satisfaction after their reentry (test-retest correlation coefficient= .82; coefficient alpha= .86 and .87). The scale consists of five general statements about life (e.g., "In most ways my life is close to my ideal." and "So far I have gotten the important things I want in life."). Participants also responded to each statement using a 7-point scale (1= strongly disagree, 7= strongly agree). The possible score range is between 5 and 35, with higher scores indicating higher levels of life satisfaction, and lower scores indicating lower levels.

The Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (Radloff, 1977) was used to measure returnees' current level of depressive symptomatology. It is considered to have significant levels of reliability and validity (coefficient alpha= .86; test-retest correlation= between .32 and .67; concurrent validity= between .28 and .89 at $p< .01$ significant level). Participants were asked to respond to 20 statements such as "I felt I could not shake off the blues.", "I was happy.", and "People were unfriendly." Each response was scored from zero to three on a scale of frequency/duration of occurrence of the symptom (i.e., 1= rarely or none of the time, 2= some or a little of the time, 2= occasionally or a moderate amount of time, 3= most or all of the time). The possible ranges of scores are zero to 60, with higher scores indicating higher depression levels. Researchers have suggested 16 be used as a cutoff, 17 and over designate "possible" (depressive) cases, 23 and over indicate "probable" cases (Radloff, 1977; Radloff & Locke, 1986).

Another eleven questions were formed to obtain information of the independent variables. Questions were about gender, age, academic level, field of study, time spent overseas, overall satisfaction with overseas experience (1=very unsatisfactory, 5= very satisfactory), willingness to return home (whether or not returning home is returnees' first choice), reentry reasons (14 potential reasons affecting decisions of reentry; e.g., parents' expectations, little job opportunity in foreign countries, feeling isolated in the foreign country, etc.), time since return, change of home society/environment (1= no change at all, 5= complete change), and perceived treatment from home people (1= very poorly, 5= very well).

Data collection and data analyses

Data needed for this study were obtained through a mail survey. The major statistical techniques employed to analyze the data included multiple regressions, t-tests, and product-moment correlations. More specifically, relationships between ten independent variables (not including the factor "reentry reasons") and three dependent variables were tested using multiple regression analyses. Relationships among the independent variable "reentry reasons" and dependent variables were analyzed by t-tests. Relationships among dependent variables were examined using product-moment correlations. All analyses were accomplished using the SAS program. The significance level was set at $p < .05$.

Results

The following provides findings of the data analyses:

Descriptive information of the participants

Of the 191 (94 male, 97 female)Taiwanese returnees who responded to the survey, the majority (80%, N=151) were between the ages of 26 and 35. Twenty-two percent (N= 42) were doctoral graduates, and the remaining 78% included 148 master's graduates and one bachelor's graduate. Business, engineering, and education were the major fields of study by returnees. The average time returnees spent overseas was about 43 months, and the average time since their return was about 13 months. Approximately 70% of the returnees considered returning home after overseas study as their first choice. Reasons that motivated their reentry were found to be (in descending order of frequency) parents' expectations, career considerations, wishing to contribute to the home country, feeling isolated in the foreign country, and lifestyle preference. The average overall satisfaction with overseas experience was 4.03. The average perceived change of home society/ environment was 3.12. The average perceived treatment by home people was 3.61. All three variables were based on a 5-point scale-- with 1 indicating low satisfaction, little societal change, or poor treatment by home people; and 5 indicating high satisfaction, much societal change, or positive treatment by home people.

For the dependent variables, the average score of reentry difficulty for the entire participant group was 57.65 (between the possible range of 16 and 112). The average life satisfaction was 3.49 on a 7-point scale (high scores indicate high levels of satisfaction). The average depression level was 15.21. Using 16 as a cutoff, 113 participants (60%) were under the cutoff, 45 scored between 17 and 22, and 31 scored 23 and over.

Factors affecting reentry difficulty

Results indicated that all together, the ten independent variables (not including reentry reasons) accounted for 17% of the variance of reentry difficulty. Gender and willingness to return home were significant factors. Female Taiwanese returnees tended to experience greater reentry difficulty after returning from the United States than did their male counterparts, a difference of 7.04 points on the scale. Returnees who did not consider returning home after overseas study as their first choice also experienced greater reentry difficulty (by 5.41 points) than those who considered returning home as their first choice.

Among 14 reentry reasons, eight were found to be significant. Students who returned home because of "parents' expectations" or "little job opportunity in foreign countries" tended to face greater reentry difficulty than did their counterparts. Those who returned home with reasons "more meaningful to work in Taiwan", "never thought of staying overseas", "sponsored by the government, must come home", "wish to contribute to home country", and "prefer the lifestyle in Taiwan" tended to have less reentry difficulty than did their counterparts.

Factors affecting life satisfaction

All together, the ten independent variables accounted for 16% of the variance of life satisfaction. Significant factors were overall satisfaction with overseas experience, willingness to return home, and perceived treatment by home people. For every point of increase on the overall satisfaction with overseas experience there was a 0.28 point increase on the life satisfaction scale. For every point of increase on perceived treatment by home people there was a 0.32 point increase on the life satisfaction scale. Returnees who did not consider returning home after overseas study as their first choice tended to have lower levels of life satisfaction (by 0.63 point) than did their counterparts.

Four reentry reasons were found to be significant: more meaningful to work in Taiwan, never thought of staying overseas, good career opportunity in Taiwan, and prefer the lifestyle in Taiwan. Returnees who considered it more meaningful to work in Taiwan, good career opportunity in Taiwan, never thought of staying overseas, and prefer the lifestyle in Taiwan tended to be more satisfied with their life at home than did their counterparts.

Factors affecting psychological well-being

All together, the ten independent variables accounted for 19% of the variance of the depression level. "Perceived treatment by home people" was the only significant factor in the analysis. For every point of increase on this variable, there was a 2.16 point decrease in returnees' depression levels.

Three reentry reasons were found to significantly affect depression levels-- more meaningful to work in Taiwan, never thought of staying overseas, and sponsored by the government, must come home. When returnees were motivated to return home by these three reasons, they tended to be less depressed than their counterparts.

Correlations among dependent variables

Moderate levels of correlation existed among dependent variables. The relationship between reentry difficulty and life satisfaction was found to be negative ($r = -0.40$, $p < .0001$), and so was the relationship between life satisfaction and depression ($r = -0.46$, $p < .0001$). The relationship between depression and reentry difficulty was found to be positive ($r = 0.54$, $p < .0001$).

Discussion

Generally speaking, reentry may be problematic for Taiwanese returnees, especially under certain circumstances. As a group, returnees were experiencing some reentry difficulty and were slightly dissatisfied with their lives after reentry but rather satisfied with their overseas experiences. Although on the average, returnees' depression levels were below the cutoff, about 40% of the returnees might be possible or probable depressive cases. Female returnees tended to face greater reentry difficulty than did males. If returnees were satisfied with their overseas experiences, they were likely to be satisfied with their lives after reentry. If returning home after reentry was their first choice, returnees tended to experience less reentry difficulty and greater life satisfaction than did their counterparts. The better returnees perceived themselves being treated by their home people, the more satisfied they were with their lives after reentry, and the less they felt depressed. Among the 14 reentry reasons, nine were found to affect returnees' reentry: parents' expectations, little job opportunity in foreign countries, wish to establish own career in Taiwan, more meaningful to work in Taiwan, never thought of staying overseas, sponsored by the government/company--must come back, good career opportunity in Taiwan, wish to contribute to home country, and prefer the lifestyle in Taiwan.

These finding have significant implications especially for multicultural counseling and counselor training. Counselors in the United States and in Taiwan can provide students/returnees pre-departure and reentry orientation for both general and specific readjustment concerns. Assistance may include reality checks, helping re-familiarize returnees with social conditions in Taiwan, developing appropriate job-search skills, interpersonal skills, and coping strategies. This study could also provide some general guidelines to counselors who are and/or will be working with international students and returned students. Counselors can help increase students' awareness of cultural reentry and help students examine the potential impact of their motivation for reentry on their readjustment process. As for educators or trainers in the multicultural counseling profession, it is hoped that this study will call attention to the inclusion of reentry adjustment in the entire cross-cultural adaptation process, and will prepare student counselors to provide services to clients regarding both their initial cross-cultural adaptation as well as their reentry transition.

References

Adler, N. J. (1981). Re-entry: Managing cross-cultural transitions. Group & Organization Studies, 6 (3), 341-356.

Altbach, P. G. (1989). The new internationalism: Foreign students and scholars. Studies in Higher Education, 14 (2), 125-136.

Anderson, L. E. (1994). A new look at an old construct: Cross-cultural adaption. International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 18 (3), 293-328.

Austin, C. N. (1983). Cross-cultural reentry: An annotated bibliography. Abilene, TX: Abilene Christian University Press.

Austin, C. N. (1986). Cross-cultural reentry: A book of readings. Abilene, TX: Abilene Christian University Press.

Berry, J. W. (1990). Psychology of acculturation: Understanding individuals moving between cultures. In R. W. Brislin (Ed.), Applied cross-cultural psychology (Vol. 14, pp. 232-253). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Bochner, S., Lin, A., & McLeod, B. M. (1980). Anticipated role conflict of returning overseas students. The Journal of Social Psychology, 110, 265-272.

Brabant, S., Palmer, C., & Gramling, R. (1990). Returning home: An empirical investigation of cross-cultural reentry. International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 14, 387-404.

Brislin, R. W., & Van Buren IV, H. (1974). Can they go home again? International Educational and Cultural Exchange, 4 (4), 19-24.

Davis, T. M. (1995). Open doors 1994/95: Report of international educational exchange. New York, NY: Institute of International Education.

Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The satisfaction with life scale. Journal of Personality Assessment, 49 (1), 71-75.

Gama, E. M. P., & Pedersen, P. (1977). Readjustment problems of Brazilian returnees from graduate studies in the United States. International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 1, 46-57.

Hansel, B. (1993). An investigation of the re-entry adjustment of Indians who studied in the United States. Occasional Papers in Intercultural Learning, Number 17.

STUDENT SUCCESS:
SERVING INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS IN AN AGE OF TECHNOLOGY

Dr. Nancy A. Scott
Vice President and Dean for
Enrollment Management and Student Affairs
Kent State University
Kent, Ohio

Introduction

Interest among foreign students to attend universities in countries other than their own has been high for many decades. Until recently, however, the emphasis has been on students from European cultures, and the focus in the United States has been with an orientation that is overwhelmingly European. According to Johnston and Spalding (1996), more study abroad occurs in the United Kingdom alone than in the rest of Europe, Asia, Africa, and South America combined. Ninety to 95 percent of language enrollments are in French, German, and Spanish. As Johnston and Spalding (1996) stated, "The problem, obviously, is that this Eurocentrism makes less and less sense as the world changes, and non-European, non-Western peoples and cultures figure increasingly in all dimensions of our life".

One of the effects of this Eurocentrism focus in the United States is that when students who are not from European countries decide to matriculate to our institutions of higher education, they find little familiarity and sometimes little acceptance of their cultures, customs and languages. Yet, the interest and need for study opportunities in the United States remain at high levels in Japan, China and other Pacific Rim countries. According to Johnston and Spalding (1996), China, for example, is rebuilding its system of higher education, and while its population is 1.3 billion, its universities can serve only five percent of the age cohort that traditionally goes on to college.

Another noteworthy change in higher education in China is the recent interest in general and liberal education. In the past, China's form of general education followed a traditional Communist model, consisting mostly of Marxist-Leninist philosophy. With such an emphasis, no wonder it is somewhat confusing to students when they come to American colleges and universities and find that the majority of their work during their first two years is in fulfilling general education requirements rather than focusing on courses in their major fields of study.

This paper will discuss how American colleges and universities are attempting to serve International students so that they can be successful in meeting their educational goals. In addition, as we have moved into an age of technology, the question can be asked whether technology has an impact on student success for international students.

Challenges, Needs and Adjustments of International Students

When international students first arrive at an American college or university, common emotions range from excitement and wonder to feelings of fright and anxiety. These students often feel lost with the new language, have concerns about meeting friends, or are worried that no one will understand them or give them support. This experience has been described as a feeling of "jumping into cold water".

International students face many notable challenges during their first semester at an American institution of higher education. Papers need to be written. Abbreviations used in American higher education need to be understood. A reliable means of securing money from home needs to be established. Feelings of loneliness need to be dealt with in an appropriate manner. Most international students experience a loss of what is familiar, and America is often not like what they have seen in American movies. They often deal with feelings of culture shock and of their values being called into question.

In a 1988 educational film entitled, "Cold Water", three stages of adjustment for international students coming to America are identified. At first, the student believes that everything is fine (described as the honeymoon phase). Then the student experiences feelings of irritation -- food, weather, and people are often found to be unpleasant. At the last stage, the student adjusts to realize that there are things to be liked and adjustments can be made, and there are other things for which an adjustment will never be made. This stage leads to an acceptance of differences where there may be occasional strain but not anxiety, and the student begins to enjoy the new culture.

It has been found that what is most helpful during this transition is for foreign students to get together and discuss their experiences not fitting in with their values. Those who deny that there are any adjustments or unhappiness are usually the ones who have the most difficult time. A difficult adjustment for many foreign students, particularly students from Eastern Asian cultures, is that Americans are perceived to be critical, blunt and even rude at times. Their openness and directness can even be embarrassing to the foreign student who is not used to the American way of sharing personal information. In addition, time management is not part of many other cultures which do not place the same value on promptness as Americans do; in fact, being on time may even be perceived as being rude. These students are also often amazed at the lack of geographic knowledge that American students have in relation to their areas of the world.

Another key adjustment factor for many foreign students is the difference in language patterns. Use of phrases such as "Hi, how are you?" are common, but with no expectation for an answer to the question. In fact, this greeting seems superficial to the foreign student. Another example includes "I'll call you" with no call coming after all. In addition, American students can experience difficulty trying to understand a foreign student's accent with the student often being asked to repeat what is being said three or four times.

Foreign students view many American friendships as relationships with little depth, whereas their conception of friendship is very different. To the foreign student, deep and lasting friendships among Americans appear rare.

Finally, American students seem to have little respect for professors and other authority figures as compared to foreign students who rarely question authority, and who would never engage in disruptive classroom behavior such as putting their feet on their desks, drinking or eating, or interrupting the professor. In fact, many students from Asian cultures have an expectation from their educational systems that students should not speak in class and should memorize what they have been taught. This leads them to often be reluctant to engage in class discussions.

In looking at psychosocial differences between American and Asian foreign freshmen students, Sheehan and Pearson (1995) conducted a study to see whether Chickering's theory on the identity process of college students was applicable to Asian students. It was believed that if this theory was relevant with Asian students, it could be useful for understanding them and designing developmentally appropriate programs. The study used the Student Developmental Task and Lifestyle Inventory (SDTLI) to measure certain aspects of Chickering's theory.

Sheehan and Pearson (1995) found that Asian international freshmen were similar to American students and were no less autonomous regarding their academics. Gender differences were not found between either group of students. The study did find that Asian international freshmen differed significantly from the American freshmen in the areas of Establishing and Clarifying Purpose, Developing Mature Interpersonal Relationships, and Intimacy. This suggested that Asian students were not as actively involved in academic life, had less well defined educational and career goals, and had more difficulty manipulating their environment to satisfy needs and responsibilities than did American students. Asian students showed lower measurements on the development of open and trusting interpersonal relationships if their interactions with American students were limited because of their isolation and seeking support only from other international students. Lower scores on the intimacy scale fit with the Asian culture which does not encourage the development of intimate relationships, especially at the age range of typical college freshmen.

It is important to remember that the SDTLI is a measure of development based on Western values. Thus, a limitation of Sheehan and Pearson's study is that its findings can only be used to provide insight into how Asian international students compare to American students on the specific tasks and scales of the SDTLI.

Programs and Services for International Students

With the above-stated challenges, needs and adjustments in mind, what are some of the programs and services that can be provided by American colleges and universities to maximize the educational experience for international students?

It is important to recognize the value of family in the lives of many international students, and Asian students in particular. For example, family is central to Chinese society and traditions play an important role in everyday life. This is in striking contrast to the Western notion of individuality. Also, a lack of privacy, by Western standards, dominates the residential and work environment of the student in their native country. Individual self expression is often hindered as housing is very crowded and many family members often share residential space. However, it is also evident that interpersonal harmony prevails and one does not often witness an argument or fight.

The programs and services of American colleges and universities must, therefore, take into account the closely-held values of international students so that they have a sense of familiarity and comfort. For example, events for international students should include family members who may be living with those students as is often the case with graduate students.

Numerous colleges and universities throughout the United States have, in fact, established programs and services. These programs provide the much needed support for the international student to enhance both the successful transition to an American institution and completion of the student's college goals. These programs can be categorized as follows:

* Orientation and Arrival Services -- Visa services; immigration regulations and federal laws; temporary housing information; programs on cultural and academic adjustment; airport arrival greetings; information on obtaining a driver's license; etc. These services have the objective of making a smooth transition from the home country to the university and providing needed information for the arrival of the student.

* Life in the University -- Health insurance and health care resources; shopping opportunities within the community; international student organization contacts; English classes at the university or within the community; telephone services, bus systems; recreation and leisure activities; banking; emergency services; local travel opportunities; etc. These are the services needed to help students get settled in their new environment and to become acquainted with offerings at the university and within the immediate community.

* Financial Aid and Employment -- Fellowships and other financial resources for international graduate and undergraduate students; practical training information such as getting a job on campus; job search strategies; employment options for F-1 students; etc. Financial resources are often high on the list of needs for students once they arrive and employment services are needed to help the student navigate between the regulations and employer expectations.

* Community Involvement with International Students -- Host family programs; conversation partner programs to give students a chance to speak English with an American friend, English conversation groups; and speakers' bureau to provide international speakers to schools, civic, and religious organizations.

* Social and Cultural Activities and Opportunities -- international clubs and organizations; cross-cultural lectures and exhibits; international week activities; festivals and Chinese New Year celebrations; monthly newsletters to provide updates on activities and news

from campus; cross-cultural resource libraries; bus tours during vacation breaks; holiday activities; workshops; and international film series.

* Departure Information -- Moving and shipping information and other things to consider when going home. Re-entry workshops can assist a student to realize that changes have taken place while the student has been in America and that those changes might affect their re-entry into their home culture.

It is also important to note NAFSA: Association of International Educators, a nonprofit membership association that provides training, information, and other services to professionals in the field of international educational exchange and specialized programs for international students. Another program of NAFSA is ASPIRE, an acronym for APEC Student Professional Integration and Reentry. ASPIRE helps to facilitate the personal and professional return home of Asia-Pacific graduate and postgraduate students. Benefits to students include career-related contacts, job fairs, internship and practical training opportunities, and information on Asia-Pacific economic developments; personal skill-development workshops and leadership training; a newsletter, electronic mail, and job-link database.

Role of Technology

Prospective and enrolled college students are becoming more proficient at using the Internet to explore educational options at home and abroad. College and university officials have quickly learned that this medium has the power to capture the interest of prospective students. Having information about the college on the WorldWide Web has provided students with a plethora of material far beyond what most recruitment materials ever provided. Through the process of "surfing the Internet", students have access to a vast array of information -- textual, graphic, and audio. An institution's catalog, available courses, major requirements, faculty listings, student services, and general rules can be accessed immediately. Numerous photographs that offer flattering vignettes of campus life, as well as interactive maps, can be accessed at the mere click of a computer's mouse.

Another technological advancement has been through the use of electronic mail (e-mail) Students can send a message to the Admissions Office and get a humanized answer to any question regarding the college and university. Once a student has made a decision to apply he/she can do so by filling out an application on the computer and sending it electronically

Students also find that they often have access to all these features once they are enrolled by bringing their personal computers from home and hooking up to a student account made accessible through wiring of their residence hall. This also opens the door to the availability of listservs and communication back home and with other students from their country who may be at other institutions. This connection with home could help alleviate some of the problems mentioned in the first section of this paper such as loneliness and homesickness.

It has also been found that some students who are reluctant to speak up in class may feel more comfortable participating with the instructor by e-mail or through computer conferencing systems. This may particularly be true in the case of an international student whose language skills may impede class discussion.

A caution for administrators and staff, however, lies in the possibility of students becoming so immersed in the technology and the comfort zone with their technology that they do not socialize with other students and participate in campus activities. Isolation from the campus can be a reality and residence hall directors and advisors need to help the student find a balance between these activities.

A second caution is the potential for ethical issues to arise through the Web pages. Anyone with access to Internet and the WorldWide Web can post information for the world to see. There is little verification of the accuracy of the posted information, and safeguards have not been put into place to make sure that students are not duped into applying or sending money to an institution that exaggerates its virtues or even one that might exist only in cyberspace. The importance of professional staff should not be overestimated, as these staff members can serve as mentors and advisors to assist students when they navigate this new technology.

Finally, it must be realized that caution should be used in the transmission of sensitive data via e-mail. The issue of security must still be considered when transmitting items such as a university application form which might include giving financial information and credit card or social security numbers via cyberspace.

The role of technology, then, can impact student success by providing opportunities for students to be served more effectively, efficiently and timely. Access to programs and service information can be enhanced greatly. Communication can be enhanced both on and off campus. Cautions, however, need to be taken with this new advanced opportunity, and the role of advisors and other professional staff is still a critical factor in ensuring each student's success.

Title: Relationship Technology and Caring: Comparative/Cross-Cultural Perspective on Counseling At-Risk Youth

Author: Lonnie Rowell, Ph.D

Biographical Information: Lonnie L. Rowell, Ph.D., is an Assistant Professor in the Counselin Program at the University of San Diego. Dr. Rowell has over 20 years experience in educatio as a teacher, administrator, counselor, organizer, and counselor educator. He helped create, and then directed, the San Diego State University Experimental College from 1967 to 1969, an from 1970-1979, he was director of San Diego's first alternative school. He received his Ph.D. in Counseling Psychology from the University of Southern California (1992) and a Master of Science in Counseling from San Diego State University (1983). While at USC he also earned a Graduate Certificate from The Program For The Study of Women and Men in Society. Dr. Rowell is an Associate Trainer in the Community Circle of Caring Program with National Educational Service, Inc. of Bloomington, Indiana, and a Certified Group Facilitator in the National Training Project, Domestic Abuse Intervention Project, Duluth, Minnesota.

Dr. Rowell's major interests include organizing, advocacy, and evaluation in school counseling, group counseling in schools, alternative education and counseling with at-risk youth, men's issues in counseling and therapy, and international collaboration and cooperati in educational reform efforts and in the training of counselors. Currently, he is working on a training manual for group counseling in schools, is helping to organize a men's issues group within the American Counseling Association and is doing research on educational reform in The People's Republic of China. Dr. Rowell's academic specialization is gender issues in counseling and therapy. His publications have addressed school counselor interventions in sexual harassment and gender, social constructionism, and psychotherapy.

His life experience includes 22 years of communal living in Southern California, instruction i martial arts and Tai Chi Chuan, and travel throughout the U.S. and in Asia, Europe and Sout America. He has two children and lives in La Mesa, California.

The theme for this conference is caring in an age of technology. this theme suggests a challenge, if not a contradiction, in that the infusion of modern technology into a nation's economic and socio-cultural infrastructure has proven to be both pragmatically beneficial and profoundly alienating. Although caring is often marginalized in the process of technological advance, the perceived, and also quite real, benefits of modernization, progress and development lead countries to adopt solutions to the problems of late 20th century nationhood that are highly dependent on technology. This paper addresses the complex issue of technology, modernization and caring in the context of counseling what we refer to in the U.S. as "at-risk" youth, that is, those young people who are deemed most likely not to be successful in finding a socially productive, law-abiding niche in a modern, highly industrialized nation. My contention is that one of the most pressing challenges for formal helping professions in advanced industrialized nations is coming to terms with the system's impact on individual psychology and social relations. This challenge is particularly difficult in regards to what social commentator Paul Goodman referred to as "disaffected youth," that is those who do not fit in, and most often do not want to fit in, to the dominant socio-political, economic systems that have come to define the post-World War II period. By extension, the challenge for counselors in developing countries may be to prepare in advance for the effects of what Theodore Roszak described as the technocracy. In my view, counselors and youth workers in developed and developing nations alike face a long-term struggle against the marginalization of caring, and this struggle, as I see it, is an intrinsic element of the competitive, market-driven global economic system now being promoted as the answer to the world's problems.

I am particularly interested in the roles and functions of counselors in what is referred to as world-class educational systems. The basic thrust of educational resources and policies in such a system is to keep the society competitive in the emerging global economic structure by making sure that education serves the dictates of advanced industrial productivity and global market forces. In a world-class educational system, the social, emotional and psychological needs of those who are "at-risk" of not being successful in the competitive environment required on this path to modernization are secondary to the need to motivate "successful" students to find their proper niche in the process of development and modernization. Hence, in relationship to at-risk youth, the push for world-class educational systems poses some common problems for counselors and youth workers across cultures, and the sharing of ideas in international forums may be a critical step in the development of creative solutions to these problems. Yet, every idea, no matter how good, must be adapted to the unique cultural, social, and political conditions of each country and community, and the mechanical transplant of foreign models of counseling is to be avoided. The critical assessment of differing cultural perspectives and social and political conditions can be very useful, however, in the development of indigenous helping models that are responsive to emerging global problems.

This paper is based on two interrelated themes concerning the scenario just presented. The first concerns guidelines for building relationships with at-risk youth. In a 1989 article in the journal Child and Youth Quarterly, George Thomas asserts that in the United States a major part of the difficulty in developing positive relationships with disaffected youth can be found in the nation's tendency to want simple answers to complex problems. In contrast to the desire for "quick fixes" such as "just say no" to drugs" or individualistic self-esteem for massive disaffection and alienation, Thomas called for paying close and systematic attention to the development of relationship skills. To respond effectively, Thomas concludes, requires the revival of "relationship technology." Acknowledging the challenge, Larry Brendtro, Martin Brokenleg, and Steve Van Bockern drew on the literature of developmental and counseling psychology, the writings of gifted, and visionary, youth workers as well as their own many years of experience working with troubled, defiant youth to identify guidelines for the revival of relationship technology. The ten guidelines include: 1.) Focus on the actions involved in positive relationships rather than on feelings. In other words, to love another is not simply to have a feeling but it is to act towards that person in ways that reflect care, responsibility, respect, and knowledge; 2.) Recognize that crisis is an opportunity. This guideline is often described in relationship to the Chinese character for "crisis" in which danger is combined with opportunity. As Brendtro, Brokenleg, and Van Bockern describe it, the behavioral crises of difficult youth are opportunities to strengthen the bond between these youth and caring adults, and it is through such bonds that the youth learn how to better manage their problem behavior; 3.) Practice advanced empathy. "Love the unlovable" is the way the authors put it. As Gerard Egan (1994) asserts, "advanced empathy focuses not just on problems, but also on unused or partially used resources" (p. 180). The challenge for the counselor working with particularly defiant and troubled youth is to learn how to help these young people become more "attractive candidates for friendship;" 4.) Disengage from the conflict cycle. This guideline addresses the phenomenon in which hostile youth provoke aggression in adults and withdrawn youth often inspire adult feelings of giving up. Youth counselors need to be skilled in pulling back from this conflict cycle; 5.) Earn the trust of youth. This essential building block of an effective helping relationship is put in place through the provision of support, understanding and appropriate affection. With defiant youth, building trust is a long, exhaustive process, and to earn the trust of such youth counselors need a keen awareness of the process and a healthy respect for how much unlearning, as well as learning, needs to take place. Guidelines six through ten continue the combination of practical skills and philosophical insights. The sixth guideline is to be prepared for an endurance event. Helping at-risk youth does not lead to quick fixes and counselors need preparation that will enable them to endure for the long haul. The seventh guideline calls on counselors to practice straight-forward, practical approaches to communication and problem-solving. With this guideline, the authors emphasize finding an alternative to overly directive, authoritarian approaches which preach to youth about their "bad" behavior and to totally non directive counseling in which the counselor merely reflects back to the counselee what she or he has said. Here, counselors are challenged to go beyond techniques to engagement with youth in the context of genuine receptivity to their life experiences and points of view and supportive work that challenges their blind spots and supports their efforts to make important decisions. Guideline Eight is to remember that respect begets respect. Here, the practice of respect is contrasted with approaches that patronize and dehumanize youth. This guideline suggests that a respectful relationship, so essential for the work of counseling, is created through a reciprocal process which begins with the counselor viewing the counselee as a unique individual, treating him or her as a person of value, appreciating the diversity of counselees and counselee problems, and committing oneself to work with, and be available to, counselees. The ninth guideline is to teach joy. Brendtro, Brokenleg and Van Bockern assert that an important part of helping troubled youth is to work to bring joy into their lives on a daily basis. The last guideline is to make the invitation to belong. This guideline relates to creating institutional environments that foster a sense of belonging and community.

In addition to providing direction for the training of counselors and youth workers, these guidelines can be translated into policies and practices for schools and residential youth treatment facilities. The guidelines protect the dignity of even the most troubled youth and they promote the responsible involvement of alienated youth in the creation of just and caring communities. Here, we come full circle in a critical assessment of world-class educational systems and at-risk youth. As Herbert Marcuse (1964) saw it, advanced industrial nations become one dimensional societies in which social controls "exact the overwhelming need for the production and consumption of waste"(p. 7). Theodore Roszak (1969) decried the social engineering inherent in "the technocracy" and warned that "in the technocracy everything aspires to become purely technical, the subject of professional attention. The technocracy is . . . the regime of experts--or of those who can employ the experts" (p. 7). As Roszak and others have observed, the experience of youth in social ecologies such as this is quite often framed by futility, learned irresponsibility, and loss of purpose. As non-expert, non-productive beings, children and youth seem to exist to consume and although they are objects of professional attention (teachers, administrators, marketing analysts, sociologists, psychologists, etc.) they are not well equipped to become subjects of their own histories. Paul Goodman (1960) was a particularly insightful commentator on these dynamics. Writing from the post-World War II period to the early 1960s on the plight of youth in America, he concluded that Americans had lost the capacity to imagine genuine alternatives to the technocratic system as well as the genius "for inventing changes to satisfy crying needs" (p. x). Yet, similar to Roszak's praise for the potential of youth culture, Goodman acknowledged that the "crazy young allies," as he referred to disaffected youth, made quite good sense and that paying attention to what they had to say and to what their behavior represented as a response to the prevailing mores and contradictions of the society was an important source of both reasonable self-criticism and social criticism and of right action for reclaiming the future. Ultimately, Goodman and Brendtro et al are in agreement that at-risk youth reflect the failures of adult society to provide the necessary quantities and qualities of nurturance, loving guidance and direction to the society's young. For Brendtro et al, the importance of counseling at-risk youth lies in the potential for reclaiming these young people and nurturing them towards engagement in productive social relations.

The second theme I wish to mention is the importance of transnational caring in the development of our work with alienated youth. According to Madeleine Leininger (1981), who has explored care and caring practices in a variety of cultures for over two decades, transcultural caring involves understanding the explicit "cultural-care beliefs, values, and lifeways and using such knowledge in culturally specific ways to help people" (p. 107). As she sees it, knowledge and skills based on specific cultural-care concepts are essential in a multicultural world. Leininger asserts that, around the world, most people seeking counseling are seeking care and not treatments or cures based on technical regimens. In her words, "caring has healing, humanizing, and enabling power to one's self-esteem, growth and actualization abilities" (p. 114). She further states there is now a critical need for incorporating culturally sensitive caring into modern counseling practices because people around the world increasingly experience technologized and dehumanized services in which real care is lacking. I would add that given our knowledge that the disappearance of caring and cohesive communities significantly increases the likelihood that youth will engage in destructive behavior, the need in relationship to at-risk youth is particularly strong. Although she has not articulated specific care constructs for China, her postulates and assumptions can serve as a foundation for the identification and prioritization of Chinese concepts of care, and for research concerning the incorporation of these concepts into modern counseling in China. Indeed, there may be some urgency to this prospect as, although school and community counseling as it is known in the west hardly exists in PRC, there are indications both that counseling is becoming an area of interest for those concerned about China's youth and that counseling psychology soon may be incorporated into the training of china's teachers.

Issues in Multi-cultural Counseling Supervision

Ginger MacDonald, Ph.D.
Seattle Pacific University, Seattle, Washington, USA

For the past twenty years, discussions of issues of ethnic and cultural differences in counselor supervisory relationships have been polarized between two schools of thought, exactly replicating the cross-cultural counseling discussion (Strupp, 1973). One camp says ethnic knowledge and specific sensitivity is important, but not critical, if the core counseling conditions (e.g., empathy, congruence, respect) are met. (Patterson, 1996). For example, Cook & Helms, (1988) in their empirical study of race in supervisory relationships found perceived supervisor liking to be the strongest factor related to successful supervision, regardless of the race of the participants. The other camp says that specific social, and anthropologic knowledge and experience are essential in order to effectively work with clients different from oneself (These positions are more fully addressed by Das, 1995). Some take the middle ground saying both are important, but the tension still exists. Leong and Wagner (1994) in their summary of the literature through 1994 suggest that in cross cultural counseling (a) race differences matter, especially in the perception and expectations of the counselor on supervisor's level of empathy, congruence, and respect, (b) race influences counselors' perception of supervisors' liking, and (c) there are some circumstances in which race does not seem to have much impact.

While a blend of both positions is probably necessary (Das, 1996; McFadden, 1996), these positions stop at the point of (a) ethnically appropriate counseling skills or (b) non-biased thinking. Both sides miss the main point of supervision. The question must be: How might we move our supervisees to their next developmental level? Let us reframe the situation by suggesting three other perspectives. First, we must take a more systemic approach to the big picture of multicultural issues in supervision. Secondly, we must approach effective supervision as a matter of intentional development of cognitive complexity. Finally, I will suggest that a more constructivist approach will facilitate better supervision. In the process of this discussion, I will share examples from supervision cases in which I have been involved. Following the call from Weinrach and Thomas (1996) I will intentionally discuss cultural examples not typically mentioned in recent literature.

It is important to define terms of this discussion. The choice of the term "multi-cultural" is intentional. Following Bernard (1994), the term is philosophically and practically more accurate than cross-cultural. Cross-cultural implies a dyadic interchange of two persons, each with a singular, primary identity rooted in their race or culture. Actually, supervision is at least triadic (to include the client) and then each person may have several types of cultural identifications (e.g., race, gender, age). Ivey, Ivey, & Simek-Morgan (1993) define multicultural counseling as counseling in which two or more persons with different worldviews (ways of perceiving one's social environments) are brought together in a helping relationship. This broad definition, when applied to supervision, allows the appropriate and necessary assumption of more complexity. Culture, in the broad sense, is an important determinant of behavior, and is a factor in all aspects of counseling and supervision. There is a difference between culture as an anthropological construct and the subjective individual culture of one's life experience. Individual's identifications with a specific cultural group are mediated by temperament, family structure, historical period, and the experiences with other cultural groups (Das, 1995).

Systemic Approach

A focus on the supervisory experience demands attention to a number of different ecosystems. Taking into account the supervisor, supervisee, and clients' systems and subsystems, we encounter a interaction of dynamic, reciprocal but not proportional influences. (Das, 1995). The relative alliances within cultural systems, including racial identities are all legitimate foci of the supervision. The proportional areas of influence are not static, but often change over time, reflecting growth and development of the individuals within the system.

As supervisory systems of importance are defined, including general and cultural differences, we must watch out for reification of terms like race and ethnicity (Atkinson, Morten & Sue, 1993). A broad definition of culture recognizes that within group differences are stronger than between group differences (Pedersen, 1996; Weinrach & Thomas, 1996). The supervisee's culture may include issues of ethnicity, race, religion, gender, age, or types of disabilities.

Case example 1[1]

The supervisor was a European-American male in his 30's. The supervisee was an Asian-Indian woman in her 20's. She had recently begun facing personal issues of anger relative to male authority figures, and had developed a strong novice feminist perspective—rejecting male authority of any kind. The young woman considered there to be no difference between them ethnically, but significant and impeding differences in gender. As an inexperienced supervisor, he was unable to attend to the variety of cultures influencing her response to him. He approached supervision in a fairly linear fashion, wondering, "What have I done to cause her to lose trust with me?" This supervisory relationship was rocky at best, and although they worked out many of their differences, significant trust never developed. Had the supervisor seen the larger picture with each of their systems and subsystems silently impacting their work, he might have been able to intervene more effectively.

Cognitive Complexity

A few models of counseling and supervision exist to take in the complexity of multicultural issues (Atkinson, et al., 1993; Helms, 1990), but traditional counseling theories, to the extent that they have disregarded the cultural context, are usually inadequate (Pedersen, 1996). By applying a cognitive complexity model (MacDonald, 1991) I will begin to address this inadequacy. Supervisors must attend to many levels of cognition: (a) the supervisor's thinking about the supervision (self, counselor, and client issues), (b) the counselor's thinking about the counseling, (c) the counselor's thinking about the supervision, and the (d) the client's thinking about the presenting problem, and (e) the client's thinking about the counseling. If the supervisor, counselor, or client are from different backgrounds, ethnic or racial differences may emerge as an overt or underlying variable in the supervisory relationship.

Much of the current discussion in how to deal with these differences revolves around the content of the differences, specifically racial, ethnic, and cultural differences. For counselors in training, there is much to learn. Barnard (1994) suggested that supervisors need multicultural competence before becoming a supervisor. They need to be as least as multiculturally sensitive as their supervisees (and the supervisees as their clients). Supervisors should be familiar with and use a developmental model (Atkinson et al., 1993; Helms, 1990), to determine readiness to address multicultural issues. Cultural sensitivity plus cognitive challenge will help move the supervisee toward more competence.

While Brown, Parham and Yonker, (1996) suggest that racial identity attitudes are modifiable through training, this change in attitude is often the end goal of the discussion in multicultural counseling. An implied assumption is that more respectful attitudes are enough. However, a reduction in bias does not, in and of itself, make one a good counselor of clients with diverse perspectives, nor does it make one a good supervisor. Perhaps being able to "love one's neighbor" is necessary, but it is an insufficient condition for excellent counselor supervision.

It is necessary for the supervisor to approach the task seeing multiple levels of cultural complexity, holding the levels simultaneously and then applying them in an appropriate model of supervision at the counselor's level of development. The supervisor must understand developmental processes, and apply this knowledge at the self, counselor, and client levels. Then the supervisor must form a schema for understanding supervisees needs, and translate them to an appropriate developmental level for that supervisee.

---

[1] Case examples 1 and 3 are described in great detail in Nelson & MacDonald, et al.

203

An example of the complexity of supervision applied to a multi-ethnic situation would be the developmental demands of supervision (Carney & Kahn, 1984) The supervisor must be aware of creating a supervisory environment that meets the supervisee at the supervisee's stage of identity development. Some trainees possess no knowledge of their own ethnicity and its impact on their work. Case 1 was an example of this point. Since the supervisee was in a beginning stage of identity development as a feminist, that was salient for her, at least temporarily overshadowing other identity issues. The supervisor could not encourage her ethnic identity development, especially in light of the other issues.

An example of a complex cognitive-supervisory task is the observation of parallel processes between the supervisor and the supervisee that mimic the dynamics between the counselor and the client (Vargas, 1898, cited in Leong & Wagner, 1994). Cultural differences would certainly be a part of this observation and dynamic. For example, if a client were feeling victimized by an employer for racial reasons, the counselor, experiencing difficulty in helping the client, may feel like the supervisor is acting prejudicially in the supervisory relationship. This is a very complex, but important observation to make in the supervisory setting.

Case example 2

The supervisor was a middle-aged, female, European-American professor in a counselor training program. The supervisee was an Iranian male, about eight years younger. The supervisee was deaf and worked with interpreters. In a sense, the supervisee was working in his fourth language (Farsi, Farsi sign, American English, American Sign Language). The supervisee was counseling a European-American, hearing woman, younger than himself. He was also in a training program in a Christian university while he was a devout Muslim. In the supervision sessions his being deaf and the process of having to counsel through interpreters was a key focus. Gender and religious values were also somewhat more salient issues than ethnicity, but separating these into component parts was not possible nor, from a systems perspective, desirable. As there were multiple levels of complexity in this supervision, the supervisor needed to spend more time processing the variables with the supervisee. In this situation, as this was in a beginning practicum, it was essential to keep all the elements of the systems in the supervisor's mind, but to allow the supervisee to focus on just a few at a time. The supervision was successful, although laborious at time.

The following table summarizes the levels of cognitive complexity in operation during multicultural supervision.

Supervisor Level:
    Supervisor's perception of client's cultures in presenting problem
    Counselor's perception of client's cultures in presenting problem
    Client's perception of own cultures in presenting problem
    Counselor-client relationship within cultures
    Supervisory relationship within cultures
Counselor Level:
    Counselor's perception of client's cultures in presenting problem
    Client's perception of own cultures in presenting problem
    Counselor-client relationship within cultures
    Supervisory relationship within cultures
Client Level:
    Client's perception of own cultures in presenting problem
    Counselor-client relationship within cultures

Constructivist approach

As much of counseling and supervision is involved with the construction and evaluation of identity, if racial oppression on a continual basis has been part of someone's life experience, then that experience will affect identity development. In fact, race may become the salient part of that person's identity. Helms (1990; Helms & Piper 1994), and Atkinson, Morton, and Sue (1993) have well formed minority identity development models. On the other hand, as each member of the supervisory relationship has membership in many cultures, there will be times in which one membership is more salient than another (Das, 1995; Pedersen, 1996).

Cook's (1994) discussion of racial identity in supervision is important as she applied Helms's (1994) redesigned model of racial identity development. Cook advocates for making racial identity an immediate part of the initial supervisory interactions. I agree, with the caveat of not assuming that race is the supervisee's most salient identity. For some, it may clearly be the most important issue determining the supervisory relationship. For others, there may be alternate areas of joined or conflicting cultures that are influential.

One issue that can arise when a supervisor sees ethnic identity as the overriding factor in a supervisory relationship, is an imposition of the supervisor's construct on the supervisee's understanding of the relationship. A first issue a supervisor must to consider is the salient element of the supervisee's culture that is impacting the session. Or, to be even more realistic, what combination of cultural issues are salient at this time? For example, ethnicity might be an issue of impact in the supervisory relationship. Or, the worldviews about gender within those ethnic differences may be more important. Others have recommend we expand the dialogue on diversity to include cultures of nationality, age, disability, gender, educational level, ethnicity, language, physique, race, religion, secular orientation , social class, and trauma. (Atkinson & Hackett, 1995; Das, 1995; Weinrach & Thomas, 1996.)

Supervision should be a reciprocal, constructed event. Fukayama (1994) raised an interesting situation in which the supervisee had more cultural knowledge about the client's issues, but the supervisor had more skill and knowledge of how to work out appropriate interventions. Together they can construct the supervisory reality. The relationship may be more affectively defined than by racial alliance. Cook and Helm's (1988) found that even in multiracial supervisory relationships, supervisee perceived supervisor liking and conditional liking were the most predictive factors for supervisory success. How that personal relationship forms will be, of course, culturally influenced (Das, 1995).

Case example 3

The supervisor was a middle-aged, female, European-American, doctoral student. The supervisee was Japanese-Hawaiian-American male in his 20's. He admitted that he looked up to her in the same way he might respect his mother's opinion. He was deferent to her perspective (and she was quite respectful of him in return), taking feedback about the sessions and applying what his supervisor suggested. This behavior seemed reflective to him of the respect youth hold for their elders, irrespective of gender, in his culture. The supervisor was taken aback by the deference, as it was unusual in her experience. However, they openly discussed this from their first session on and formed a solid working alliance. Using his preferred construct, in both of their estimations, the supervision was quite successful.

Developmental awareness

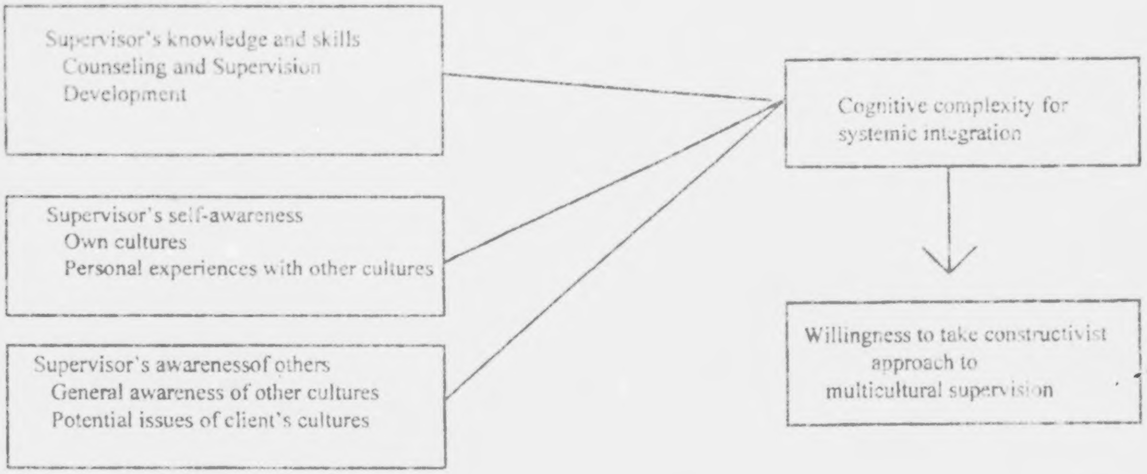
Each of the previous cases suggest that the supervisor must be aware of the supervisee's developmental level, in order to provide the most effective supervision. The supervisor must tailor the supervision in light of a systemic perspective of the supervisee's cultural experience and cognitive ability.

Case example 4

The supervisor was a European-American, woman in her 40's and the supervisee was a Taiwanese woman in her 30's. The supervisor felt quite ineffective as the counselor did not wish to discuss any personal feelings, saying she was not raised in her country to share herself with others. It seemed clear to the supervisor that the client had a lot of anger regarding a difficult internship situation. The supervisor, who would normally have taken an affective posture and worked with the supervisee on her anger, changed her traditional approach to supervision. She moved from her traditional consultant/counselor role to a more teacher role, keeping the discussion in sessions to counseling behaviors. Developmentally, this supervisee's cognitive abilities were still quiet dualistic. Culturally, expression of affect was difficult. Therefore a more concrete, behavioral supervision style was necessary, and as it is usually less threatening, supervision could continue. This example of how developmental issues interact with cultural norms is also evidence of the need of complex awareness of the client's inter- and intra-individual systems

Summary

- The following table summarizes the characteristics of effective multicultural supervision.


Supervisor's knowledge and skills
Counseling and Supervision
Development
Supervisor's self-awareness
Own cultures
Personal experiences with other cultures
Supervisor's awarenessof others
General awareness of other cultures
Potential issues of client's cultures
Cognitive complexity for systemic integration
Willingness to take constructivist approach to multicultural supervision

In conclusion, there are several complex issues to consider when a supervisor and supervisee are of different cultures. I suggest that the supervisor must:

1) Evaluate the developmental level of the supervisee. This would include the supervisee's cognitive, affective, and racial/ethnic identity. This will allow the supervisor to gauge the appropriate feedback and intervention level.

2) Attempt to see the broad effect of interaction of the cultures and systems on the supervisor and supervisee's life experiences. This will increase empathy between supervisor and supervisee (and in parallel fashion, between supervisee/counselor and client).

3) Learn to think with complexity. Because counseling and supervision are complex processes, we must teach complex thinking skills in counselor education programs.

4) Not assume race or any other cultural factor is the most salient issue in a supervisee relationship, or that if it is at first, it might not change as the supervisory relationship develops. Through open discussion and feedback, determine key issues in the supervisory relationship.

References

Atkinson, D., & Hackett, G. *Counseling diverse populations.* Dubuque, IA: Brown & Benchmark.

Atkinson, D, R., Morten, G., & Sue, D. W. (1993). *Counseling American Minorities: A cross-cultural approach. (4th ed.).* Dubuque, IA: Brown & Benchmark.

Bernard, J. M. (1994). Multicultural supervision: A reaction to Leong and Wagner, Cook Priest, and Fukuyama. *Counselor Education and Supervision, 34,* 159-171.

Brown, S. P., Parham, T.A. , & Yonker, R. (1996). Influence of a cross-cultural training course on racial identity attitudes of white women and men: Preliminary Perspectives. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 74,* 510-516.

Carney, C. G., & Kahn, K.B. (1984). Building competencies for effective cross-cultural counseling: A developmental view. *The Counseling Psychologist, 12,* 111-119.

Cook, D. (1994). Racial identity in supervision. *Counselor Education and Supervision, 34,* 132-141.

Cook, D.A., & Helms, J.E. (1988). Visible racial/ethnic group supervisees' satisfaction with cross-cultural supervision as predicted by relationship characteristics. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 35,* 268-274.

Das, A. K. (1995). Rethinking multicultural counseling: Implications for counselor education. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 74,* 45-52.

Fukuyama, M.A. (1994). Critical incidents in multicultural counseling supervision: A phenomenological approach to supervision research. *Counselor Education and Supervision, 34,* 142-151.

Helms, J.E. (1990). *Black and White racial identity: Theory, research, and practice.* Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Helms, J. E. & Piper, R. E., (1994). Implications of racial identity theory for vocation psychology. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 44,* 124-138.

Ivey, A. E., Ivey, M. B. & Simek-Morgan, L. (1993). *Counseling and psychotherapy: A multicultural perspective.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Leong, F.T.L. & Wagner, N.S. (1994). Cross-cultural counseling supervision: What do we know? What do we need to know? *Supervisee Education and Supervision, 34,* 117-131

Nelson, M.L., MacDonald, G., Blume, A., Coulon, J., Elliott, E., Milo, E., & Rodriguez, J. (1997). Development of four supervision cases over time: Qualitative and quantitative perspectives. (Unpublished manuscript). University of Washington, College of Education.

MacDonald, G. (1991). Counselor cognitive processing during hypothesis formation. (Unpublished manuscript). Seattle Pacific University, School of Education.

McFadden, J. (1996). A transcultural perspective: Reaction to C. H. Patterson's "Multicultural counseling: From diversity to universality." *Journal of Counseling and Development, 74,* 232-235.

Patterson, C.H. (1996) Multicultural counseling: From diversity to universality. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 74,* 227-927.

Patterson, C.H. (1996). The 1994 Leona Tyler Award Address: Some thoughts on reaching the end of a career. *The Counseling Psychologist, 24,* 336-347.

Pedersen, P. (1996). The importance of both similarities and differences in multicultural counseling: Reaction to C.H. Patterson. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 74,* 236-237.

Strupp, H.H. (1973). On the basic ingredients of psychotherapy. *Journal of Clinical and Consulting Psychology, 41,* 11-8.

Weinrach, S.G., & Thomas, K.R. (1996). The counseling profession's commitment to diversity-sensitive counseling: A critical reassessment. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 74,* 472-477.

TREATING STRESS ACROSS CULTURES:
A SOMATIC-COGNITIVE MODEL

Joseph A. Lippincott, Ph.D.

Dr. Lippincott is the Director of Intern Training at Kutztown University Counseling Services in Kutztown, Pennsylvania. He has presented papers at conferences in the United States, Canada, and Argentina, and has published articles in journals of the American Medical Association and the American Psychological Association. His presentation is based upon research and clinical work with immigrants, refugees, and international students.

Introduction

"Acculturative stress," also referred to as "culture shock," is a stress response that often occurs as individuals travel and live in other countries. The culture of the individual exerts a strong influence on that individual's perceptions of, and responses to this stress. An integrative, rather than a culturally-specific approach to treatment, however, may afford the best results.

I will be describing a practical treatment model designed to reduce the effects of "acculturative stress." The model is a comprehensive, integrative stress management treatment protocol that crosses cultural lines to address both somatic and cognitive responses. It is a short-term approach that can be employed in approximately six sessions. The major focus is on the therapeutic relationship with the client--the vehicle through which change is made possible. There are also psychoeducational, cognitive, and behavioral components in the treatment model. The goal of treatment is to reduce the overall effects of culture-related somatic and cognitive anxiety.

INTRODUCTION

I will be describing a practical treatment model designed to reduce the effects of "acculturative stress," also referred to as "culture shock." Draguns (1981) refers to such effects as a "casualty of international mobility." This model has been developed from my work with myriad international clients at a mental health clinic in Washington, D.C., and with international student clients at counseling centers at several American universities.

The model is a short-term approach that can be employed in approximately six sessions. The major focus is on the therapeutic relationship with the client--the vehicle through which change is made possible. There are also psychoeducational, cognitive, and behavioral components in the treatment model. The goal of treatment is to reduce the overall effects of culture-related somatic and cognitive anxiety.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CULTURE AND STRESS

"Stress" has more than forty definitions in the counseling literature (Hoes, 1986). One author goes so far as to say that the term "stress" is meaningless from a scientific standpoint (Averill, 1989). More specifically, acculturative stress is a "common, unavoidable process" (Zapf, 1991) that often occurs as individuals travel and live among non-native cultures. Such stress can impact immigrants, business people, students and scholars. Acculturative stress develops when "persons with histories of stability and with emotional and intellectual resources adequate for the task develop a wide variety of symptoms including restlessness, depression, irritability, loss of initiative, loss of appetite, and inability to concentrate. No two persons are the same" (Guthrie, 1979, p. 363).

Somatization (Somatic Anxiety)

A common stress response among non-Westerners is somatization--the subjective experience of physical symptoms in response to stress. Somatization is particularly prevalent in cultures that tend to discourage verbal expressions of emotional distress. Generally speaking, incidences of somatization increase as one travels east from the Eurocentric world.

The bulk of cross-cultural literature on somatization describes Asian samples, including the Near East, Far East, and Pacific Rim. In Western Asia and the Middle East, physical symptoms tend to be more acceptable than psychological symptoms, with less associated stigma. This phenomenon was described by Meleis (1982) and Silver (1987) when they noted striking similarities between Arab Muslims and Israeli Jews. Other peoples from such otherwise diverse cultures as Africa and South America experience frequent somatic reactions, especially where physical complaints are generally seen as acceptable responses to stress.

Cognitive Anxiety

The cross-cultural literature also describes cognitive anxiety as an acculturative-stress response. Walton (1990) refers to "cognitive inconsistencies" experienced by those who travel between cultures. Bombardment by new and conflicting expectancies creates cognitive distortions and anxiety. These cognitions may include worries about "not having what it takes to handle things. . . . how difficult or punishing my tasks are. . . . the outside demands and pressures in my way. . . . how complicated things are. . . . how uncertain things are. . . . unmet needs and wishes. . . . taking things too seriously [and not seeing] things in perspective. . . . [and] worry itself" (Smith, 1989, pp. 43-45).

It is important to remember that the above-mentioned "symptoms" are common acculturative reactions and, in and of themselves, are not pathological.

THE THERAPEUTIC RELATIONSHIP AND ASSESSMENT

The initial session(s) for treatment of acculturative stress consists of an in-depth intake with a strong psychoeducational component. It is important that the client knows what to expect from this process. An initial assessment of client expectations is followed by a detailed description of the treatment process. Clients often come to counseling needing "to be fixed," and with expectations of significant action on the part of the counselor.

A vital initial step is to convey to the client the importance of communication and trust--"We must first get to know each other." Equally important is "learning from the client," a process during which many questions are asked and the therapeutic bond strengthens.

The counselor should ask about the values, relationships, and cultural expectations of the client in an unassuming, sensitive manner. What were the client's expectations about the new land? Are these expectations being met? Have they changed? How does life "back home" compare with life in this new place? How has the client sought to relieve anxiety in the past? Has the client had "previous treatment?" These questions yield important diagnostic and treatment-related information.

There are a number of important areas to explore as part of the extended intake. Language difficulty is a good starting place since it is often a primary stressor. The client, for example, may have discovered that an ability to speak the new language does not necessarily translate into an ability to understand the language upon hearing it. A referral to a language tutor may initially be an effective anxiety-reducing agent.

Relationship expectancies and interpersonal communication styles are important to discuss. Some societies promote very close peer bonds, for example, while others may foster more loose "acquaintanceships." What makes life meaningful and enjoyable for the client? Is that missing in the client's new life?

The current social network of the client needs to be assessed. Individuals, for instance, whose primary interaction is with others from their own culture, may yield chronic alienation from the new culture.

The client may have been affected by incidents of discrimination or racism. These occur much more frequently than one may assume. Heikenheimo and Shute's (1986) study of international students revealed that nearly 90% had experienced discriminatory behaviors. Others, such as refugees, may have experienced traumas that require more than six sessions of therapy.

Gender issues warrant attention, particularly for females. Gender issues may also affect males, however, such as those who have been accustomed to female subservience, and now need to be aware of differences in expectations in their new environment. Again, comparing and contrasting the client's native culture with the new culture is helpful.

There are a number of other differences across cultures which may contribute to acculturative stress. An example is the concept of time, which tends to be a much more concrete paradigm in the West. Another example involves the concept of work, where differences may lead to issues concerning cooperation and/or competitiveness.

As all of these issues are explored, a trusting relationship between counselor and client is developing, the key to effective treatment.

TREATMENT INTERVENTIONS

Somatic Anxiety

The treatment of somatization is a tripartite process. The initial stage includes a "somatic check-up," which is actually an in-depth assessment of physical signs/symptoms. This can be accomplished using a modified medical-model approach. The client's physical discomfort needs to be assessed via a thorough history. (If symptoms indicate, a physical examination by a health care professional may be warranted). Organic causes of somatic discomfort must be ruled out.

The next stage involves a specific treatment for somatic anxiety. This may vary according to counselor preference. The treatment goal here is to produce a decrease or absence of somatic distress, ideally yielding what Budzynski (1978) refers to as a "Relaxation Response." For many Western-trained counselors, Progressive Muscle Relaxation (Jacobson, 1934) is a familiar, effective approach. This technique teaches the client to achieve somatic relaxation and relief through a series of muscle tensing-relaxing exercises. This process is also helpful for many clients because they become an active participant in their own treatment. An audiotape for between- session follow-up can be an effective adjunct.

The final stage of the somatic treatment sessions simply involves a review of the previous sessions and the opportunity for the client to ask questions and refine his/her techniques. Counselor feedback provides the client with a sense of mastery, promoting confidence in self, as well as in the counselor.

Cognitive Anxiety

The cognitive interventions, like the somatic treatment elements, are an adjunct treatment, "part of the whole," as it were. It is very important to explore the interplay of the client's thoughts, beliefs, and expectations with subsequent feelings and behaviors. Beck's (1979) model of cognitive restructuring is a good example. The goal here is not to alter the client's cultural belief system. Rather, it is to identify and mediate conflicts between the client's present cognitions and present life situations.

This can be accomplished by employing a cognitive restructuring approach, particularly one that examines the automaticity of certain thoughts. The individual learns to recognize the cause of the unwanted stress, and then learns to control and reduce that stress. Consider, for example, the case of an international student who has become anxious and distressed. The student has begun to struggle academically, and has automatically concluded, "I am a failure." Working with the client to identify the cause of the anxiety, and then identify alternative, rational responses to that cause allows the client to recognize options, to learn more of the host culture, and ultimately to experience a decrease in cognitive anxiety.

References

Averill, J. R. (1989). Stress as fact and artifact: An inquiry into the social origins and functions of some stress reactions. In C. D. Spielberger, I. G. Sarason & J. Strelau (Eds.), Stress and anxiety (Vol. 12) (pp. 15-38). New York: Hemisphere.

Beck, A. T. (1979). Cognitive therapy of depression. New York: Guilford Press.

Budzynski, T. H. (1978). Relaxation training program (Cassette recording). New York: BioMonitoring Applications.

Draguns, J. G. (1981). Cross-cultural counseling and psychotherapy: History, issues, current status. In A. J. Marsella and P. B. Pedersen (Eds.), Cross-cultural counseling and psychotherapy. New York: Pergamon.

Guthrie, G. M. (1979). A cross-cultural odyssey: Some personal reflections. In A. Marsella, G. Tharp, & T. J. Ciborwoski (Eds.), Perspectives on cross-cultural psychology (pp. 349-368). New York: Academic Press.

Heikenheimo, P. S., & Shute, J. C. M. (1986). The adaptation of foreign students: Student views and institutional implications. Journal of College Student Personnel, 27, 399-406.

Hoes, M. J. A. J. M. (1986). Stress and strain: Their definition, psychobiology and relationship to psychosomatic medicine. Journal of Orthomolecular Medicine, 1, 30-38.

Jacobson, E. (1934). You must relax. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Meleis, A. I. (1982). Arab students in western universities. Journal of Higher Education, 53, 439-447.

Silver, H. (1987). Physical complaints are part of the core depressive syndrome: Evidence from a cross-cultural study in Israel. Journal of Clinical Psychiatry, 48, 140-142.

Smith, J. C. (1989). Relaxation dynamics: A cognitive-behavioral approach to relaxation. Champaign, IL: Research Press.

Walton, S. J. (1990). Stress management training for overseas effectiveness. International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 14, 507-527.

Zapf, M. K. (1991). Cross-cultural transitions and wellness: Dealing with culture shock. International Journal for the Advancement of Counseling, 14, 105-119.

THE CHALLENGE OF GRIEF: COUNSELING THE SURVIVORS

Presented by

Winifred Strong and Mary Honer

Winifred Strong, MA, NCC. Counselor/Consultant. Retired from Long Beach Unified School District, California. Co-Chair CACD Professional Development Committee. Past President; CACD Association for Adult Development and Aging. Past Member-at-Large AADA, 1993 - 1996.

Mary Honer, Ed. D. School Psychologist/Consultant, Garden Grove Unified School District, California. President; California Association for Religious Values Issues in Counseling Co-Chair CACD Professional Development Committee. Past President; California Association for Counseling and Development. Past President; California School Counselor Association.

Introduction:

In this era of computers, machines and high tech tools which are hailed as providing "better living through technology" too often the human element becomes lost. Although the genius of man continues to increase the speed and efficiency of computers and machines, technology can also intensify the isolation of an individual. We must remain vigilant to the importance of human compassion. As crises strike, man's effort to cope underlines the human element of caring; the importance cannot be denied. As counselors we must be prepared to offer the message **"WE CARE"**.

This presentation will focus on the stress and struggles faced by survivors, following physical and/or emotional loss. Counselors and mental health providers must develop plans for implementing the healing process that follows loss.

Death is permanent and universal. Throughout the world religious groups, cultural and racial diversity account for a different response to loss. Denial, guilt, anger, bargaining and eventual acceptance of the loss are phases of grief. It is essential to understand the attitudes about death, the phases of grief, and the influence these attitudes have on the survivors, how it colors behavior.

Other forms of loss are more subtle and involve unresolved disappointment in personal life. Whether a minor or major loss has occurred, most persons experience bereavement and grief, which for many people precipitates a crisis state. It is important that any counselor dealing with this crisis realizes that it is the personal and subjective response of the individual that determines the impact of the loss, not whether other people believe it is a major or minor loss.

THE NEED:

With advanced technology, traumatic incidences worldwide are brought into our living rooms where vicariously we share in the loss and grief of others. It is when someone we know, admire, or feel a bond with dies, is seriously injured, or experiences a loss that we also share in that loss. When a national leader, a popular entertainer, or sports figure is involved, we become involved. As a nation we mourn and experience grief at a certain level. Often prople cope by donating money to the family, sending flowers, or making expressions of sympathy in other ways. This kind of grief tends to be short lived for those on the periphery.

It is however, very different when the loss or grief hits our own family or close friend. This trauma effects us personally, deeply, and often remains unresolved for years. Counselors need to be prepared to assist when grief strikes the nation, the classroom, or the individual. Each incident carries its own uniqueness and must be dealt with in light of the victim's personal need and belief system.

OBJECTIVES:

1. Counselors will receive information which will assist them in recognizing symptomatic behaviors common to bereavement and loss.

2. Counselors will have the opportunity to discuss some common myths about grief.

3. Counselors will review intervention strategies and activities when counseling those experiencing grief and loss.

4. Counselors will have the opportunity to share personal experiences and intervention strategies to cope with loss.

5. Counselors can share the response to loss observed in different cultures.

STAGES OF GRIEF

Elizabeth Kubler-Ross
On Death and Dying

1. Denial and isolation
2. Anger
3. Bargaining
4. Depression
5. Acceptance
6. Hope

COLORS OF GRIEF

Adapted from
Scriptographic Publication *About Grief*

1. Shock
2. Denial
3. Anger
4. Bargaining
5. Guilt
6. Depression
7. Acceptance
8. Hope

Definition of Grief: Grief is the feeling of loss when someone we love dies or is lost to us. Every person and every situation is unique. Therefore, no one feels exactly the same grief feelings as another. Most people feel some of these feelings for a long period of time, some for only a short time. In times of grief we all need support from friends and our faith.

SOME MYTHS ABOUT GRIEF (From Scriptographic Publication *About Grief*)

1. Tears are a sign of weakness.
2. It's best to avoid discussing a loss with a grieving person.
3. Children should be sheltered from grief.
4. An end of grief means an end to caring about a loved one.

YOU CAN HELP A GRIEVING PERSON (From Scriptographic Publication *About Grief*)

1. Be present if you can.
2. Be a good listener.
3. Encourage independence.
4. Be patient.
5. Help with chores.
6. Assist with cards and letters.
7. Lend a hand with meals.
8. Answer the telephone.
9. Remember - recovery takes a long time. Continue your support for as long as it is needed.

WHAT TO EXPECT IN NORMAL GRIEF

Theresa Rando Grieving

You can expect that grief will:

1. Take longer than most people think.
2. Require more energy than you would ever have imagined.
3. Involve many changes and be continually changing.
4. Show itself in all spheres of your life - psychological, social and physical.
5. Depend on how you perceive the loss.
6. Entail mourning not only for that person, but for the hopes and dreams you held for and with that person, and for the needs that will go unmet because of the death.
7. Involve a wide variety of feelings and reactions such as depression and sadness.

You will:

1. Grieve for many things, both symbolic and tangible - not just death alone.
2. Grieve for what you have lost now and for what you have lost for the future.
3. Experience resurrected old issues, feelings, and unresolved conflicts from the past.

You may:

1. Feel some anger and depression such as irritability, frustration, annoyance, and intolerance, even at those trying to help.
2. Feel anger and guilt, or at least some manifestation of these emotions.
3. Have some identity confusion as a result of the major loss and the fact you are experiencing reactions that may be quite different for you.

You may:

1. Have a lack of self-esteem.
2. Have a lack of self-concern.
3. Experience grief spasm - acute upsurges of grief that occur suddenly with no warning.
4. Have trouble thinking, memory, organization, intellectual processing, and decision making.
5. Feel like you are going crazy.
6. Be obsessed with death and preoccupied with the deceased.
7. Find yourself acting socially in ways that are different from before.
8. Begin a search for meaning and may question your religion and philosophy of life.

STRATEGIES FOR HELPING THOSE COPING WITH GRIEF

1. Tell the truth.
2. Think like the client (ie. think like a child).
3. Avoid judgment.
4. Use appropriate language.
5. Acknowledge, explore, and accept feelings.
6. Provide a safe, open atmosphere.
7. Be a role model.
8. Provide an opportunity for sharing beliefs.
9. Acknowledge the importance of death.
10. Involve client in activities that provide opportunities to remember. Memories are comforting, signify the importance of the deceased person, represent the importance of life and death, and recognize the reality of one's personal pain/loss/grief. Memories fill an empty space.

ACTIVITIES

* Suggested activities can be adjusted to a specific situation and age group. The following activities are suggested for grief groups, but with some modifications may be used on an individual basis

1. Discuss the stages or colors of grief.
2. Create memory books.
3. Read stories, poetry, books, and articles about grief.
4. Have the group members write letters to someone mentioned in the above selection. If they choose, let members share letters within the group.
5. Write your own story of loss and share it with the group.

6. Write letters to each other on behalf of the deceased.
7. Write letters to the deceased.
8. Discuss myths about grief.
9. Draw a picture of a happy time with the deceased.
10. Discuss how to assist others with grief.
11. Identify resources for getting help and needs met.
12. Create a memorial collage.
13. Have members share their dreams of the deceased and discuss them.
14. Discuss words used to define and describe death.
15. Share about funerals or other rituals and their purpose.
16. Write letters to a close family member who may be dying.
17. Remember a funny time with the deceased and share it.

DEBRIEFING

Counselors working with an individual who has suffered a major loss may find that the experience dredges up memories and feelings of loss within themselves. It is important for the counselor to have a support system to assist with coping. Sometimes a friend is available with whom to share, sometimes a time of meditation, prayer, or group activity is necessary for the care giver.

When working in a group setting the counselor must be aware that the activity may arouse latent anxiety in one or more of the group members. These feelings must be dealt with in order to being the group to successful closure.

Reminding the group that they have each other, the counselor, and their support resources is important. It is sometimes necessary to reconvene occasionally to assess progress in the grieving process. Saying good-bye with hugs, handshakes, or pats on the backs reinforces the universal need for a human touch.

SELECTED RESOURCES

1. **AARP - American Association of Retired Persons**
Social Outreach and Support Section
601 E. Street, N.W.; Washington, DC 20049

Publications

Bibliography on Grief and Loss	P.F. 1469 (893) D435
Customs of Bereavement	P.F. 44591 (1909) D14110
Celebrating Diversity	P.F. 4590 (1091) D14078

2. **California Association for Counseling and Development**
Professional Development Committee
2555 East Chapman Ave. - Suite 201, Fullerton, Ca. 92831
Phone (714) 871-6460 FAX: (714) 871-5132

Publication
Caution: Crisis Ahead Counseling Skills Workshop Manual

3. **Channing L. Bete Co., Inc.**
200 State Road, South Deerfield, Ma. 00173-0200
Phone: (800) 628-7733 FAX (800) 499-6464

Publication
Scriptographic Booklets

4. **Los Angeles Unified School District**
450 Grand Ave., Los Angeles, Ca. 90012
Phone: (213) 625-6000 FAX (213) 742-8195

Publication
A Handbook for Crisis Intervention

5. **Southwest Regional Laboratory (SWIRL)**
4665 Lampson Ave., Los Alamitos, Ca. 90720
Phone: (310) 598-7661

Publication
Preventing Chaos in Times of Crisis

6. **TAG - Teen Age Grief, Inc.**
Linda Cunningham, Founder
P O Box 220034, Newhall, Ca. 91322-0034
Phone (805) 253-1932

Publication
Teen Age Grief: A Training Manual for Teen Grief Support

7. **Active Parenting Publishing**
801 Franklin Court - Suite B, Marrieta Ga. 30067

Publication
Helping and Healing Thru Loss. A video-based program related to grief and loss

HELP-SEEKING BEHAVIORS OF THE COLLEGE STUDENTS IN TAIWAN

Hsiu-Lan Shelly Tien, Ph. D.

National Pingtung Teachers College
Taiwan, Republic of China
Tel & Fax: 011-886-7-3803297
E-Mailing: A660@adm.npttc.edu.tw

INTRODUCTION

Help-seeking behaviors might be different from culture to culture. The Chinese people tend to be uncomfortable to disclose self to others, especially when they are expected to share the negative feelings to a stranger. Therefore, counseling might not be a popular way for them to solve the problems. They might share those feelings to their friends instead of to a stranger. For Chinese, "face" is an important value to them. Parents always want to be proud of the children and how can an individual share their failures to others! People unfamiliar to the professional counseling would not seek for help through the counseling methods. If the problems encountered by an individual are not so personal, they might ask for help. Information providing will be a good way to satisfy their needs to solve their impersonal problems.

Pliner and Brown (1985) surveyed the university students' perceptions of stressful events in four different domains: academic, family, financial, and personal. The results indicated significant differences among ethnic groups in different domains of problems. However, the Asian-American group did not show high neends for counseling services compared to other ethnic groups. This might be to do with the value "face" aforementioned. Another study also showed significant differences among different groups with respect to people's help-seeking behaviors (Lin, Inui, and Kleinman, & Womack, 1982). Mau and Jepsen (1990) compared the students' perceptions of problems among Chinese and American students. The results indicated that American students tended to perceive problems as being more serious than did Chinese students, except for the vocational and educational problems. This again implied that the Chinese people tended to keep the personal problems in mind so as to save their 'face." Or they really put more emphasis on the importance of the academic and career types of problems in comparison to personal problems.

To understand the students' perceptions of counseling needs in different domains of problems would be important for the school Counseling Centers to make plans. The students' preferences of counseling methods will also influence the effectiveness of counseling. The purposes of the study were (1) to understand the students' perceptions of needs for counseling in personal, academic, and career problems and (2) to realize the students' preferences of counseling strategies with respect to the three problem domains.

METHOD

Subjects. The subjects were 137 freshmen at the National Pingtung Teachers College. Part of them are government-supported and would be assigned a teaching job in elementary schools after their graduations. Part of them have to pay tuition and fees and have to find a teaching job by themselves if they want to teach in elementary schools. Of the 137 students, 93 of them are government supported and 44 are self-supported. Besides, 54 are males and 83 are females.

Instrument. The author developed the "Needs for Counseling Questionnaire", which were divided into two parts, perceptions of counseling needs and help seeking behaviors. All the subjects were asked to answer 43 questions in three areas: personal problems, academic problems, and career problems. The format of the questionnaire in perception part was a 4-point Likert scale with 1 indicated not important and 4 indicated very important. While in the Help-seeking Behavior part, there were 7 alternatives which indicated ways students can get help from the Counseling Services on campus. They were individual counseling, group counseling, table discussion, lecture, information providing, psychological testing, and other ways. The subjects were asked to indicate which way they prefer with respect to the 41 problems they encountered. Cronbach α coefficients based on the 137 students in this study were respectively .88, .94, and .89 for the personal, academic, and career problem scales.

Data analysis. Percentages for counseling needs and different types of help-seeking behaviors for each of the items were calculated. One-way ANOVA was also used to test the gender differences on the students' perceptions of needs for help in three types of problems.

RESULTS

The students' perceptions of counseling services. Table 1 indicated the students' perceptions of counseling services on campus. Of all the counseling problems, the 8 items students perceived most important that motivate them to seek help were as follows. Values included in parenthesis represent percentage important and very important perceived by the students.

Courses, credits, and internship information providing (88.3)
Career decision-making skills (87.5)
Special training for a specific job (83.9)
Work adjustment (81.1)
Courses taking (79.5)
Job training and license exam information (78.1)
Report writing (78.1)
Future job alternatives (77.4)

Five of the eight items are career problems. It indicates that the students need more help in the area of career counseling. Personal problems were not included in the top eight items.

Gender differences on three domains of problems. With respect to gender differences, the results of oneway ANOVA indicated significant differences between male's and female's perceptions of counsleing needs in all the three aspects of problems. For personal counseling, $F(1, 135)=5.38$, $p<.05$; for academic problems, $F(1,135)=7.80$, $p<.05$; and for career counseling problems, $F(1,135)=5.99$, $p<.05$. From the mean values in table 2, we can identify that females got greater means than males in all the three aspects of problems. It shows that females perceived greater needs for help in all three aspects of problems.

Perceptions of counseling services with respect to government support or self support. All the students in teachers colleges were government-supported and did not have to pay tuition and fees several years ago. Now, half of the students in teachers college have to pay tuition and fees and also have to find a teaching job by themselves after their graduation. All the government-supported students can be assigned a teaching job in elementary school once they graduate. However, the results of oneway ANOVA indicated no significant differences between the two groups of students in all three aspects of problems. The mean scores in table 3 indicated that government-supported students were more concerned about academic problems. Self-supported students, on the other hand, were more concerned about personal and career problems.

Help-seeking behaviors in the three domains of problems. The right part of table 3 were the students' preferences in ways of seeking help in the three aspects of problems. With respect to personal counseling, the students prefer the method of individual counseling. For academic problems, both individual counseling and information providing were preferred methods. For career problems, most of the students preferred the way of information providing. However, for the problems of goal setting and career planning, the subjects preferred the method of indvidual counseling. Psychological testing was the preferred way for students to understand their aptitudes and interests.

In conclusion, the students' help seeking behaviors were different in different types of problems. For personal problems, the way of individual counseling was preferred. For career problems, information providing was the popular method. And for academic problems, both individual counseling and information providing were preferred.

REFERENCES

Lin, K., Inui, T., Kleinman, A., & Womack, W. (1982). Sociocultural determinants of the help seeking behavior of patients with mental illness. Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease, 170(2), 78-85.

Pliner, J., & Brown, D. (1985). Projections of reactions to stress and preference for helpers among students from four ethnic groups. Journal of College Student Personnel, 26(2), 147-151.

Mau, W., & Jepsen, D. (1990). Help-seeking perceptions and behaviors: A comparison of Chinese and American graduate students. Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development, 18, 94-104.

Table 1

Students' perceptions of counseling needs and preferences of counseling methods

	Perceptions of Needs				Preference of Methods						
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Personal Problems:											
Time arrangement	15.3	25.5	38.7	20.4	27.7	13.9	10.9	15.3	17.5	11.7	2.9
Self-understanding	10.9	18.2	41.6	29.2	41.6	9.5	5.8	7.3	4.4	28.5	2.9
Self-assertativeness	12.4	20.4	34.3	32.8	40.1	10.9	13.9	14.6	7.3	9.5	3.6
Relationship with teachers	13.9	40.1	33.6	12.4	27.0	18.2	17.5	16.8	8.8	3.6	8.0
Self-acceptance	21.2	30.7	29.2	19.0	40.1	13.9	9.5	10.2	9.5	9.5	7.3
Stress coping	10.2	24.1	40.9	24.8	34.3	16.1	12.4	16.8	10.9	5.1	4.4
Interpersonal relationships	8.7	21.2	42.3	27.7	24.1	21.2	18.2	23.4	5.8	3.6	3.6
Oral-presentaiton	8.0	15.3	29.9	46.7	23.4	16.8	19.7	19.7	15.3	2.9	2.2
Homesick feelings	27.0	28.5	29.9	14.6	40.1	12.4	10.2	13.1	8.0	5.1	10.9
Emotions expressiveness	14.6	17.5	44.5	23.4	26.2	21.2	24.1	11.7	7.3	2.9	6.6
Value clarification	11.6	14.6	40.1	33.6	26.3	21.2	12.4	10.2	5.8	19.7	4.4
Self-dignity	18.2	26.3	29.9	25.5	46.7	13.1	10.2	8.8	7.3	8.0	5.8
Extracurriculum activities	9.5	32.1	34.3	24.1	22.6	13.9	19.7	17.5	13.9	5.1	7.3
Self-awareness	11.6	22.6	33.6	32.1	38.7	13.9	14.6	5.1	5.1	16.8	5.8
Family relationship	20.5	23.4	34.3	21.9	27.7	18.2	13.1	19.0	8.8	5.8	7.3
Sexual education	7.3	21.2	46.7	24.8	14.6	13.1	20.4	27.0	19.0	2.9	2.9
Physical problems	21.2	26.3	36.5	16.1	35.0	13.1	13.1	16.1	10.2	5.1	7.3
Heterosexual problems	13.1	28.5	35.0	23.4	38.0	15.3	15.3	12.4	5.1	5.8	8.0
Leisure activities	12.4	26.3	38.0	23.4	19.7	13.1	13.9	21.2	18.2	4.4	9.5
Academic Problems:											
Test anxiety	16.1	31.4	30.7	21.9	41.6	17.5	8.8	10.2	13.1	5.8	2.9
Courses, credits, and internship information	6.6	5.1	38.7	49.6	12.4	10.2	17.5	11.7	44.5	2.2	1.5
Learning strategies	10.9	23.4	43.1	22.6	20.4	18.2	19.7	14.6	20.4	3.6	2.9
Coping to professor's teaching strategies	16.1	25.5	36.5	21.9	24.8	24.8	20.4	11.7	9.5	3.6	5.1
Major deciding	29.2	21.2	26.3	23.4	35.0	8.8	16.8	15.3	16.1	2.2	5.8
Learning ability increasing	10.2	21.2	46.7	21.9	24.1	18.2	16.8	16.8	17.5	2.9	3.6
Advanced learning planning	10.9	14.6	38.0	36.5	23.4	13.1	18.2	23.4	17.5	1.5	2.9
Conference information	9.5	13.1	54.7	22.6	11.7	8.8	8.0	11.7	56.9	1.5	1.5
Library utilization	10.9	16.8	44.5	27.7	17.5	16.8	13.1	11.7	35.0	2.9	2.9
Reading abilities	13.1	16.8	38.0	32.1	26.3	13.9	16.8	20.4	13.9	2.2	6.6
Overseas learning plan	8.7	16.8	35.0	39.4	10.2	7.3	9.5	15.3	49.6	4.4	3.6
Courses taking	5.1	15.3	39.4	40.1	19.0	13.1	21.2	15.3	24.1	5.1	2.2
Report writing	8.7	13.1	35.0	43.1	16.1	18.2	16.1	17.5	25.5	2.2	4.4
Study Planning	14.6	26.3	38.0	21.2	23.4	14.6	16.1	19.0	19.7	2.2	5.1

(Table Continues)

Table 1. (Continued)

	Perceptions of Needs				Preference of Methods						
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Career Development Problems:											
Career planning	9.5	16.8	48.9	24.8	25.5	16.8	13.1	23.4	15.3	4.4	1.5
Career and family life balancing in the future	11.9	13.7	38.7	35.8	20.4	16.8	17.5	29.2	10.9	2.9	2.2
Work adjustment	5.8	13.1	45.3	35.8	20.4	17.5	24.8	20.4	13.9	0.7	2.2
Future job alternatives	8.0	14.6	39.4	38.0	18.2	10.9	16.8	28.5	22.6	2.2	0.7
Job training and license exam information	8.0	13.9	38.7	39.4	13.1	8.0	19.7	8.0	47.4	0.7	2.9
Career decision making	5.8	6.6	32.8	54.7	15.3	11.7	19.7	21.9	26.3	4.4	0.7
Aptitude and interest understanding	13.1	12.4	45.3	29.2	28.5	13.9	6.6	6.6	4.4	37.2	2.9
Special training for a job	6.6	9.5	41.6	42.3	19.0	14.6	18.2	23.4	19.0	3.6	2.2
Goal setting	8.8	19.0	44.5	27.7	28.5	14.6	19.7	12.4	10.9	8.0	5.8
Part-time job opportunities	8.8	19.7	45.3	26.3	25.5	9.5	8.0	7.3	40.1	3.6	5.8

Note. For perceptions of needs, 1=not important at all, 2=a little bit important, 3=important, and 4=very important. For help-seeking behaviors, 1=individual counseling, 2=group counseling, 3=table discussion, 4=lecture, 5=information providing, 6=psychological testing, and 7=other ways. All values represent percentage in different categories.

Table 2

Means and standard deviations of counseling needs on three aspects of counseling services

	Perceptions of Counseling Needs		
	Personal Problems	Academic Problems	Career Problems
Gender			
Males (N=54)			
M	54.11	37.76	34.96
SD	15.79	10.42	9.17
Females (N=83)			
M	59.70	42.01	38.06
SD	12.30	7.40	5.65
Tuition Policy			
Government-Supported (N=93)			
M	57.41	40.63	39.70
SD	13.18	8.45	7.10
Self-Supported (N=44)			
M	57.68	39.70	37.25
SD	15.73	9.93	8.00

Worldview and Counselling: Perceptions of Singaporean Students

Cecilia Soong
Lecturer, National Institute of Education, Singapore

Introduction

In the light of the multiethnic and multicultural diversity of Singapore, this paper first examines the worldviews of students, comprising Chinese, Malays and Indians. Secondly, as the theoretical assumptions and philosophical underpinnings of mainstream western counselling approaches are based on western values, the students' perceptions of and preference for such counselling approaches are explored in the local Asian context.

Worldviews of students

Nine hundred and seventy Secondary Four students were surveyed. A modified version of Ibrahim and Kahn's revised *Scale to Assess World Views* (1994) was used to assess students' worldviews with the independent variables being gender, age, ethnic group, religion, course of study, academic stream, home language and socio-economic status. Of the four worldviews delineated by Ibrahim and Kahn, the primary worldview of the students was found to be the Optimistic worldview, characterised by human nature seen as basically good, harmony with nature with a possibility of power over nature in people-nature relations, and an emphasis on the inner and outer development of the person for the activity dimension.

The students' secondary worldview was found to be the Pessimistic worldview, characterised by human nature seen as basically bad, although there is possibility of a combination of good and bad. Human relationships are collateral-mutual, although there may be a tendency towards an individualistic slant. In people-nature relations, the belief is in the power of nature. For the Pessimistic worldview, the being dimension overrides, although doing is also emphasised.

Profile of students holding the Optimistic worldview

For those students who held the Optimistic worldview, the variables that showed significant differences in their scores were religion, home language and socio-economic status. Students who were Muslims, those from Malay-speaking and low socio-economic status families had higher mean scores than the other groups.

Li (1989), alluding to the activity orientation, states that Malays show a laid-back attitude towards religion which they see as promising their future without the need to make an effort. Reflecting a being-in-becoming orientation, Malays are thus more satisfied in seeking happiness and developing the inner self through religion. In addition, other-worldliness and resistance to change characterise the cultural tradition of Malays (Maaruf, 1992). This is a reflection of the being-in-becoming activity orientation of the Optimistic worldview.

Anderson (1990) profiles the Malay Singaporeans' worldview as good (human nature) and harmony with nature (people-nature relations) which are features of the Optimistic worldview.

Profile of students holding the Pessimistic worldview

As for the Pessimistic worldview, among those who held this worldview, higher mean scores that showed significant differences were found for males, those from the Express+ course and the Technical stream.

In Singapore, after children complete their primary education, they enter a secondary school, and are streamed to a Special, Express or Normal course. The Special course offered in schools known as Special Assistance Plan schools (which forms part of the Express+ course in this study), allows students to take both languages, English and a mother tongue at first language level. The other group of students that make up the Express+ course are from the independent schools which offer the Gifted Education Programme.

Express course students complete their General Certificate of Education, Ordinary (GCE 'O') Level in four years, while Normal course students have a fifth year to attain theirs. At the fourth year of the Normal course, students are awarded the General Certificate of Education, Normal (GCE 'N') Level. The academic streams in this study refer to disciplines like Arts, Commerce, Science and Technical.

A main characteristic of the Pessimistic worldview is to focus on the task or problem, and not too much on relationship issues. Males have been shown to be more objective, task-oriented and cognitively-inclined than their female counterparts.

According to information gathered from the in-depth interviews with teachers who take on the role of para-counsellors in schools, Express+ course students, being higher-ability students, are 'able to see the whole situation and know the consequences of their behaviour. As such, they know the changes they have to make, thus rendering counselling to be a strictly "business" arrangement'.

Likewise, Technical stream students, by virtue of the nature of their training in technical work, are more likely to focus on hands-on experiences, thus reflecting a task-oriented preference, a characteristic of the Pessimistic worldview.

Preference for counselling approaches

As for the students' perceptions of counselling approaches, they preferred the cognitive and client-centred approaches to counselling, with significant differences found for the variables course of study, academic stream, religion and home language.

Course of study

Express and Express+ course students were found to prefer the cognitive and client-centred approaches respectively, and Normal stream students the behavioural approach. A consideration in the preference for a cognitive approach, according to Mabey and Sorenson (1995) is time, which renders a structured, problem-focused way of working more amenable. This is particularly so in the case of Singapore society which is excellence-driven and examination-oriented, where time is a precious commodity. For students here, time is absolutely devoted to academic pursuits.

Moreover, being students, they want to think for themselves. This is especially so among the Express students because of their ability. They are logical, good at expressing themselves, and the teacher who is the counsellor does not have to probe. According to a teacher who counsels her students, 'It is much easier to counsel Express course students; the teacher explains and the student is able to see the whole picture. They know what they are doing is not acceptable, and if they persist in this misbehaviour, they know the consequences. They see the picture, accept it and make the required changes.'

Social workers, who represent the group of professional counsellors, said during the qualitative interviews that Express course students were more vocal about how they felt about certain things. They also tended to be more thinking, more analytical, and even more critical of what the counsellor had to offer. Such Express course students are not only able to put together their opinions, but also to initiate and elicit comments from others in the counselling session. Thus, according to this social worker, a cognitive approach is more palatable for this group of students.

According to a teacher, the focus in counselling is always on the clients for them to direct their own behaviour. Especially for students in the Special (Express+) course who have capabilities but not given the chance to show their talents, they like to be given responsibilities. 'If I let the student take responsibility and make his own decision, it works better,' commented a teacher. In the experience of another teacher, better students in the Special (Express+) course are said to be 'switched off'; 'they won't listen to you as they have already made up their minds; they think they know what to do and they know what's best for them; they think they can handle because they have better academic results'.

Another teacher counselling Special (Express+) students delineates the same kinds of problems this group of students present: self-concept, academic achievement and family expectations. Such students expect their teachers who are counselling them to listen to them, especially their feelings about coping with academic pressures from parents who hold great expectations for them to excel academically. In such a context, Express+ course students would want their teacher who is counselling them to understand their predicament after having listened to their woes, a definite call for the client-centred approach.

A preference for the client-centred approach can be explained by the adolescents' need for relationships. Mabey and Sorenson (1995) explain the person-centred approach in their book *Counselling for Young People* that 'empathy requires counsellors to attempt to see the world through the client's eyes, to temporarily suspend their own perception ... as young people frequently describe their interactions with adults such as their parents and their teachers as difficult and problematic'. The counsellor is confronted with the question when working with adolescents, 'Is the counsellor willing and able to be alongside the young person as they explore the confusion, the rebellion and the failure?'

Unconditional positive regard - the intrinsic valuing of the counsellee without imposing conditions of worth - is also of particular significance when working with young adolescents as their sense of self-worth is often low. Young people also seek counsellors who are genuine and authentic, who respond as one human being to another; they want a relationship where there is equality and trust. In the context of such a therapeutic relationship where there is a sense of safety and security provided by the counsellor, the adolescent will be able to trust the counsellor, and expose his sensitive feelings and thoughts which is usually a difficult thing to do (Leve, 1995).

From the qualitative data culled from the in-depth interviews with the counsellors, there was a pervasive sense that the key to working with Singaporean adolescents was to build a trusting and accepting relationship which epitomises client-centred counselling. These sentiments are voiced by a social worker who enjoys working with youth, 'One basis of making counselling work is that you must have established a relationship; otherwise, you really can't have anything to fall back on. This is particularly so when working with adolescents as they are in this particular stage in their life where they are more anti-authority and where they rely a lot on peer influence. They are basically struggling with a lot of, "I've a right to decide for myself ... you can't tell me what to do ...." Yet, when they say that, they do not know what to do for themselves, and when the counsellor does tell them, they get very indignant.'

As they are experiencing a lot of struggles in this period of their life, if the counsellor comes from a 'let me advise you; let me tell you' stance, a lot of problems will arise. Teenagers do not want counsellors to come from that professional, authority angle. 'They can't accept that initially; only when you have that kind of relationship with them that they can take it - that's the tricky part,' concluded the counsellor.

According to counsellors, Normal course students are lacking in both language ability and intellectual capacity to engage fruitfully in counselling encounters using the client-centred and cognitive styles. Hence, they would be more comfortable with a directive approach, akin to behavioural methods where they do things rather than talk about their feelings or think over their situations. Moreover, as most problems presented by Normal course students are behavioural in nature, for instance, truancy, smoking and vandalism, behavioural approaches are found to be more befitting and appropriate.

Academic stream

Results from the quantitative data showed that, in terms of academic stream, Science students scored the highest mean in their preference for a cognitive approach. This is also evident from the teachers' and social workers' comments during the interviews about Science students who demand factual information, who are more analytical, logical, objective, who want a framework, and who want things to be right or wrong.

On the other hand, students from the Arts stream preferred a behavioural approach. The teachers' and social workers' explanations are that Arts stream students in Singapore are typically students who are ranked lowest academically, predictably in the Normal course. Hence, their problems approximate those of the students in the Normal course, thus justifying Arts' students' preference for a behavioural approach to counselling.

Religion

Students with a Christian faith scored the highest mean for a preference for a cognitive approach. This can be explained by the many references in the Bible that bespeak the role of the mind in Christian living. Some of these are Isaiah 43:18, 'Remember not the former things, neither consider the things of old.' Romans 12:2 says, 'Be not transformed to the world, but be transformed by the renewing of the mind ....' In Philippians 4:8, Christians are charged, 'Whatever things are true, whatever things are honest, whatever things are just, whatever things are pure, whatever things are lovely, whatever things are of good report, if there be any virtue, if there be any praise, think of these things.'

Hindus scored the highest mean for the preference for a client-centred approach, whilst Muslims are more inclined to a behavioural approach. Plausible explanations that Hindus have an inclination towards a client-centred approach can be traced to Hindu beliefs, particularly the moral values that believers should uphold., like telling the truth, being responsible and showing respect. In addition, Hindus are taught the importance of self-realisation, an essential Client-Centred Counselling goal. Besides, Hindus also strive towards self-preservation, self-development, other existential-humanistic goals in Client-Centred Counselling.

Muslims preferred a behavioural approach partially because Koranic teachings prescribe the importance of 'doing something good'. Moreover, a preaching stance akin to 'Do this, don't do that', couched in a set of social prescriptives is rampant, reflective of a directive and behavioural approach. In actuality, the definition of counselling according to the Koran is that of advice-giving.

Home language

From the quantitative data, students from English-speaking homes indicated a penchant for a cognitive approach, scoring the highest mean, whilst those from Indian-speaking families preferred a behavioural approach. Possible explanations are that 'counselling is a very verbal thing, for instance the use of circular questioning and reframing in English, necessitating a high level of cognitive functioning,' according to a social worker. Such techniques are characteristic of the Milan approach to family therapy, where asking questions prompts changes in one's belief systems. Thus, to this social worker's mind, 'it works better with better-educated, English-educated and more cognitive families where people are more cognitive, reflective, and who would sit down and think'.

Students from Indian-speaking families showed a preference for the behavioural approach to counselling. In Indian families where the father as the head of the household wields an authoritarian reign over the family, especially the children, such Indian children are accustomed to a didactic and directive style. This could have been vicariously learnt, and it may cross over to the counselling context as well, thus explaining their preference for a behavioural approach.

Conclusion

One's worldview influences the kind of counselling help one seeks. It was evident from the quantitative data that bearing in mind the primary worldview of Singaporean adolescent students was Optimistic, they preferred a relational approach. The client-centred approach to counselling, with its emphasis on trust-building, respect and the development of relationships, was found to be the other main approach of the students.

Mindful of ethnic influence and the fast pace of Singapore society, task orientation is also accrued significance, hence the students' preference for a structured approach like the cognitive approach to counselling. This task orientation is reflective of the Pessimistic worldview which was found to be the secondary worldview of the students.

References

Anderson, J.D. (1990) Groupwork with families: a multicultural perspective. Social Work with Groups, 13(4), 85-101.

Leve, R.M. (1995) Child and Adolescent Psychotherapy. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Li, T. (1989) Malays in Singapore: Culture, Economy and Ideology. Singapore: Oxford University Press.

Maaruf, S. (1992) Some theoretical problems concerning tradition and modernization among the Malays of Southeast Asia. In Yong, M.C. (ed) Asian Traditions and Modernization. Singapore: Times Academic Press.

Mabey, J. & Sorensen, B. (1995) Counselling for Young People. Buckingham: Open University Press.

INTEGRATION OF THE RESOURCES OF THE GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING VIA INTERNET: DEVELOPMENT OF THE " GUIDANCE NETWORK SYSTEM (GNS)" IN TAIWAN

Hawjeng Chiou, Ph. D.

Dr. Chiou is an associate professor of psychology in the Department of Social Psychology at the World College of Journalism and Communications in Taiwan. Furthermore he serves as a consultant for the department of Council of Guidance and Moral Education at the Ministry of Education of Taiwan, evaluating the programs under the project of "Six Year Project of School Guidance Work" since 1996. Dr. Chiou completed this paper during the planning stage of the "Guidance Network System". Currently he is concentrating on his teaching career and monitoring the executive procedures of the GNS.

Introduction

Education is a priceless asset of fundamental importance to the individual and the society. In particular for Taiwan, a small island with a large number of people and limited natural resources, where the development of the nation highly depends upon the education of top quality human resources. However, along with the development of economy, the society of Taiwan has faced a big change in recent years. A high rate of youth crime and other social problems (see COGME, 1997) keep challenging our campuses, pressuring the government in Taiwan to develop a supplementary system to deal with the external influences and internal issues of education.

The need for Taiwan to develop a program of guidance was also proposed by another group of people who voice a reform in education. A national level committee, Educational Reform Committee of Executive Yuan, was found on September 21, 1994. Its mission is to pursue the construction of a new educational system. In addition to thinking in direction of innovation and substantial changes, many educators and professionals are called to a new world of learning and education without pressures and restrictions. Corresponding with the President Lee's address in May of 1996, a new generation of humanistic, creative, and content educators is gradually shaped in Taiwan's society. These are the major factors that drive the Ministry of Education to consider the establishment of a more comprehensive and effective guidance program which meets the needs of today's youth and the changing world.

SCHOOL GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING WORK IN TAIWAN

Beyond the general definition of guidance as a helping process (Shertzer & Stone, 1981), the guidance program under development in Taiwan has a particular emphasis on the construction and organization of the system. As a newly evolving policy, the designers and the decision-makers in the government put a great deal of attention on the reconstruction process of the schools. This policy not only has to take the adjustment of the school system into account, but also has to incorporate the ways in which the pupils are prepared to face a fast changing world. There are six components involved in the development of the guidance program in Taiwan:

1. An appraisal component for collecting and analyzing a variety of objective data about pupils and campus activities to achieve better understanding of pupils as well as develop appropriate programs to assist them.
2. An informational component for integrating a variety of guidance and counseling related resources to make the school counselors' and guidance teachers' activities and responsibilities easier and more effective. Furthermore, the students can obtain appropriate instructions and assistance via the guidance program.
3. A counseling component for providing an immediate psychological and academic aid to pupils, preventing the occurrence of delinquent behaviors, and developing a good interpersonal interaction and relations on campuses.
4. A consulting component designed to give technical assistance to teachers, administrators, and parents, while helping to improve the school as an organization.
5. A planning, placement, and follow-up component designed to assist students to make decisions on career development, to study on the psychological and cultural changes of our youth, and to utilize the national resources of guidance.
6. An evaluation component to determine the effectiveness of the guidance program and the administration procedures.

Taking the social development and the design of program described above into consideration, the Ministry of Education of Taiwan proposed a challenging project, "Six Year Project of School Guidance Work", which has made guidance operational and available to our educational system since 1991. Following and at the conclusion of the above mentioned project, another related project entitled "Youth Guidance Project" has been approved by the Executive Yuan of Taiwan to proceed with the construction of the guidance program.

"Six Year Project of School Guidance Work" (1991-1997)

The first systematic and formal development of school counseling and guidance work in Taiwan was the project entitle "Six Year Project of School Guidance Work" which began in 1991. According to the annual report of the police department obtained at the end of 1990, a youth related criminal incident took place at every twenty minute and twelve second interval. The grim conditions of youth related criminal activities has forced and continues to force the government to seriously consider the problems of campus safety and student development in the contemporary society. Hence in 1991, one of the most important national organizations, "The Six Year Plan of Nation Construction," rated the "Six Year Project of School Guidance Work" as their first priority, which was approved to run right away. By the end of June of 1996, more than $2,600,000,000 New Taiwanese dollars (equivalent to US $100,000,000) was used for this independent project. Historically, this is an innovative occurrence for the Ministry of Education to process a single project for a specific concern, which reflects Taiwan government's strong desire to reform and better the existing educational conditions in this country.

The core of the "Six Year Project of School Guidance Work" is the establishment of school counseling and guidance work from elementary schools to universities. Since 1991, thousands of school workers and administrators have been involved with this project to execute eighteen plans under the general purpose of:

> "Integrating family, school, society, and resources oversee to establish the system of counseling and guidance for synthesizing the efforts on the development of school counseling and guidance works and for preventing the occurrence of youth crimes, along with a final goal of the shaping of an excellent citizenship."

The six-year period of the project was divided into three stages: the first stage began in July of 1991 to June of 1993 with a goal of "fulfilling the human resources and equipment of counseling and guidance work to build a solid foundation"; the second stage was from July of 1993 to June of 1995 with a goal of "revising the related laws and policies, planning the evaluation system of school guidance work, and expanding the levels of influence"; and finally the last stage began in July of 1995 and will end in June of 1997 with the aim to finalize the project and to build a complete system of school counseling and guidance (Show, 1996).

One of the important plans in the project is the development of Internet-Guidance Network System (GNS). This system has as its aim to integrate a number of procedures; i.e., information, documents, activity records, research reports, and psychological tests; into a simple access network. It is of note that the GNS has the strong commitment of the Ministry of Education as well as the technical support of the Computer Center of the Ministry of Education. Therefore, the entire plan of the GNS could be made and approved in a short period of time. As predicted, the GNS is starting to show its utility both in sharing information as well as transferring information. As a result, the GNS is taken into serious consideration to be one of the sub-planners of the new six-year project (1997-2003) entitle "Youth Guidance Project".

"Youth Guidance Project" (1997-2003)

As part of a long-term commitment of government to the development of school guidance, the second six year plan, "Youth Guidance Project", proposed by the Ministry of Education has recently been supported by Executive Yuan. The Project will start to run in August of 1997 and will continue through 2003, with a total budge of 3,098,400,000 (equivalent to US $113,000,000) (Chen, 1996).

Consistent with the first six-year project, the purpose of "Youth Guidance Project" is "to integrate the resources of guidance and accomplish the important task of guidance in order to pursue a free and aptitude-based development for each student and prepare them for the contemporary society". To achieve these goals, three strategies are indicated in the Project: (a) more activities: creating models of guidance and pursuing the guidance activities on campuses in order to prevent the deviant behaviors of youth and to help the development of healthy mind and personality, (b) more effectiveness: promoting the global efficacy of school guidance by merging the forces of every teacher and administrator into a whole, (c) more resources: establishing the Guidance Network System by integrating the guidance resources of inside and outside various campuses. On the basis of the strategies listed above, a total of 19 sub-items were proposed for the Project.

A: More Activities:

1. Provide mental health education
2. Prevent youth crime and campus violence
3. Execute the policy of one-to-one guidance
4. Help the middle withdrawal students back into the classroom
5. Provide equal opportunity for both genders and gender equal education
6. Offer parental education
7. Provide counseling and Career development

B: More effectiveness

1. Provide the inservice training to all teachers
2. Promote the guidance and counseling knowledge of classroom-teacher
3. Augment the school counseling centers' technical and other needed equipments
4. Increase the content and existing information on the subject of Guidance Activity
5. Execute the plan for "Providing a Full-Time School Counselor in each Junior High School"
6. Develop a new model of guidance and moral education

C: More effectiveness

1. Build the index of Youth Culture and Mental Health
2. Keep creating and revising the Guidance Network System (GNS)
3. Develop a new psychological and educational testing facility
4. Increase the availability and the activities of entertainment and recreation
5. Establish a consultant service system for school counselors
6. Execute a regular evaluation system of school guidance and counseling works

"GUIDANCE NETWORK SYSTEM (GNS)"

HISTORY

Similar to the other developed countries, the use of computer in Taiwan is becoming the core of the school administrative procedure. Especially, the computer network which is the most convenient way for linking Taiwan's thousands of schools with the educational administration institute. The earliest and most important network in the department of educational is the Taiwan Academic Network (TAN), which provides a space for exchanging all academic activities and information of Taiwan's higher education. Almost every university and college has a connection with TAN, which is able to further communicate with the world-wide network via Internet system.

To achieve the goal of the development of GNS, six tasks were listed:

1. Find a planning committee of GNS
2. Construct the GNS within each county
3. Construct the GNS between counties
4. Construct the GNS at a national level

5. Set up a local center of the GNS at each academic level
6. Improve the effectiveness of the GNS

Considering the powerful communication function of Internet network, the federal level office of school guidance and counseling, the Council of Guidance and Moral Education, put numerous funds and resources into the establishment of GNS since 1992. Technically, GNS is a subsystem of TAN. In the early stage, GNS is designed as a central database of guidance and counseling activities and information. Since 1994, another independent bottom-up information system, Withdrawal Student Report System (WSRS), was combined into GNS. Recently, Campus Information System (CIS) is proposing to become the second cooperative subsystem of GNS, which is similar to the WSRS, a bottom-up information response system. At this time, the entire GNS system consists of three subsystems, a database main system (GNS-database), WSRS, and CIS. The three subsystems of GNS as a whole constitute a complete Internet-based computer information system for school counselors and guidance teachers to search the resources they need and to report any emergency to their administrators.

Internet-based Guidance Network System

GNS-database	WSRS	CIS
(for general information of guidance/counseling)	(for responses on student withdrawal)	(for responses on general/ special campus events)

The first and second years of the plan was supervised by Dr. Wu, the chair of the Counseling Center at the National Taiwan University. Dr. Wu's team began this project by taking one of the cities, Hinchu City, as an experiment of an ideal model for the GNS. In his model of GNS, the school as the core of the network served not only as the center of the information, but also as the main user/operator of the GNS. Two subsystems are directly connected and work with schools: the social supporting system (families, relatives, and friends of the pupils) and community resources system (religion group, union group, business, etc.). The second subsystem is a functional subsystem in cooperation with the social guidance and counseling system (related institutes and social workers) and medical network system.

THE GNS-DATABASE

The core of the GNS is a database of information relevant for school counselor use. Through the connection of Internet network, every school guidance worker can acquire the necessary information anytime and anywhere, without the restriction of time and distance. This database is updated periodically, providing the following six categories (subsystems) of resources:

A. Human Resource of Counseling/Guidance

This subsystem collects information of the available human resources in Taiwan, such as college-level lecturers of related fields; i.e., medical doctors, social works, etc.

1. Medical human resources -- medical doctors, psychiatrists, clinical psychologists, social workers.
2. Academic human resources -- counseling center of universities, college professors of psychology, and related fields.
3. Professional teachers in secondary/elementary schools (locally-based)
4. Professional teachers of volunteer programs.
5. Human resources from the institutes/organizations of public social work -- including the public organizations of social-culture, social education, health insurance, vocational counseling, youth-protection/help, etc.
6. The general human resources -- famous writers, speakers, psychologists, etc.

B. Standards for Counseling/Guidance Center

To develop a school guidance system with full-function, the Ministry of Education in Taiwan setup an equipment/space standard for the constitution of a counseling center. Schools can acquire financial support based on the standard of constitution. Considering the distinct needs of counseling and guidance, the standards vary for different academic levels. The related and relevant information on the standards is stored in this sub-section.

C. Document and Literature of Counseling/Guidance

The documentation of counseling and guidance related policies, programs, publications, curriculum designs is important for the practitioners to process their jobs. Therefore, the GNS provides rich information in this section:

1. Laws and policies of government
2. Academic literature -- such as master thesis, doctoral dissertation, special reports of government
3. Journals and magazines
4. Curriculum designs and standards
5. Teaching materials and activities examples
6. Library of counseling and guidance related books
7. Multimedia materials
8. Other pertinent material for school counselor use

D. Activities of Counseling and Guidance

This section collects all records of activities of guidance and counseling work on campuses, such as the special lecture plans and results, the successful experiences of on-the-job-training, workshops, academic meetings and conferences, etc. During the past several years, the Ministry of Education in Taiwan supported many similar activities and acquired numerous classical examples on guidance and counseling work. This subsystem allows for all the obtained information to be exchanged and shared with and among schools.

E. Assessment and Testing of Counseling/Guidance

The use of psychological tests is an important part of school guidance work. This subsystem contains various types of testing materials and information which can be used to assess for academic difficulties and guidance, developmental deficits and improvement, and career planning and counseling. In this section all kinds of information is provided for the use of each test. For example, in the introduction of each test, the length, purpose, suitable subjects, administration procedures, explanation of results, publisher, price, telephone number and address are also made available. The types of tests mentioned are in the areas of achievement, aptitude, clinical, personality, and intelligence.

F. Analysis of Special Case

This subsystem gathers the serious counseling and guidance cases which are treated by other experts and professionals in the field of psychology. These cases reflect the serious and important concerns and difficulties experienced on our campuses. By studying these cases, the new workers can learn from the experiences of others and experts in the field. These cases will include cases related with drugs, violence, suicide, etc.

THE WITHDRAW STUDENT REPORT SYSTEM

The second part of the GNS is a bottom-up information system for immediate response on the status of a student's enrollment in either secondary and/or elementary school. According to the literature and research, those students who withdraw from school for unknown reasons when they need to be in school and studying, were found to be at high-risk for criminal activities and involvement. Therefore the Ministry of Education came up with a policy to deal with the withdrawn student in 1994 and set up a computer/Internet report system to integrate the schools, polices, and governors. It was decided that as soon as a student withdraws from the classroom for unknown reasons, school teachers have to make a written report to local center of the WSRS. Then the operator of the local center will start up the Internet-based WSRS system to transfer information to local government and police units, cooperatively trying to figure out the story and the reasons for the student's withdrawal and bring him/her back to school.

Currently, there are 23 local centers of the WSRS, with each located in a county in Taiwan. When a student does not show up to school for more than three days, the student information is completed on paper by the school guidance teachers, and then sent to the local center by fax immediately. After this information is keypunched by the operator in the local center, the news and the information about the withdrawn student is transferred directly to the Ministry of Education via the WSRS. The officers in the Council of Guidance and Moral Education download the information every three days and forward the list to local police department to make necessary investigation on the cases. If the students are located, then the information is sent back to the local center for monthly report summary.

For the 1996 academic year, a total number of 8687 withdrawn students (4788 males and 3678 females) were reported through the WSRS; 30% were withdrawn for unknown reasons (disappearance), 70% of these students had specific reasons for withdrawal, such as family moving, sickness leave, etc. Most of the withdrawn students (84.5%) were in the secondary schools (junior high school); only 15.5% students were from the elementary schools. Among the 30% of the disappearing students, 54.3% (1421) were located by the school guidance teachers, the police, or the other people, suggesting that the WSRS is indeed a useful system to handle and address the withdrawn students (COGME, 1996).

THE CAMPUS INFORMATION SYSTEM

In addition to the problems of withdrawn students, a more important task of the campus guidance workers is to respond and treat the campus emergencies. These emergencies include, but are not limited to, campus violence and accidents requiring immediate attention, reflecting the dynamic nature of a school life. On the other hand, a systematic collection and analysis of these events could provide a clear understanding of our campuses' culture and possible existing concerns, which might prove helpful not only for the school workers to learn about their students and campus, but also for the governmental agencies and institutions to make the necessary policies and long-term commitment to the important endeavor of guidance and counseling of the youth of our country.

Similar to the WSRS, the CIS is a reporting system which can automatically inform local/central educational administration of special events taking place on a campus, such as student accidents, delinquent behaviors, suicides, etc. According to the first draft of the plan of Internet-CIS, this system has a more clear hierarchy of responding and reporting. As soon as a special event occurs in a school, the operator in this school has to make a report in writing to the local educational department by facsimile. Right after the governor in the local educational department receives the fax, two steps are followed: the receiver makes a report to his/her next highest boss such as the mayor through the administration hierarchy; while another facsimile is made to report the event to still the next higher level in the department of education until the Ministry of Education is made aware of this event.

CONCLUSIONS

School guidance and counseling work in Taiwan still has a long way to go. So far, there is no particular act passed to support the professional development on our campuses. No independent institute is formed or in charge of the guidance and counseling with its special space and budget yet. However, the development of technology on Internet presents a promising and great future for the guidance and counseling workers. Also, it provides a new working style and pattern of helping process. In other words, our educational system is performing a technical reconstruction by taking the guidance and counseling concepts and actions into our technical and information system. This is just the idea of guidance as social reconstruction (Shoben, 1962), in which guidance is a mediator between campuses and society. Counselor's function is to draw students into the traditions of society, and the goal of the guidance is to encourage students to search for values and to live an exemplary life. The powerful and systematic need for communication and connection to people in life are the two major activating forces that will drive us to achieve the above goals in the near future regardless of the practical limitations and obstacles placed ahead and in front of us.

Technology and the School Counselor

Doris Rhea Coy, Ph.D.
NCC, NCCC, NCSC, LPC
Counselor Education Program
Counseling, Development,
Higher Education Department
College of Education
University of North Texas
Denton, Texas 76203
coy@coefs.coe.unt.edu

Carole W. Minor, Ph.D.
NCC, NCCC
Counseling Faculty
Department of Educational Psychology,
Counseling, and Special Education
Northern Illinois University
De Kalb, IL 60115

In the forward of the 1983 monograph, Microcomputers and the School Counselor, Donald G. Hays, Ph.D. writes:

> Early man was known by the tools he used. Since early history, people have improved upon the crude tools that were created to ease the burden of humankind. From agrarian society through the industrial age the increasing sophistication of tools determined the very fabric of a civilized society. During the past several decades new technology has brought into existence a new tool that portends a new era known as the "information age." From large, climate controlled rooms filled with banks of metal containers of blinking lights and spinning reels of magnetic tape, has evolved a small television-like screen with a typewriter keyboard capable of storing, manipulating, and retrieving data a incredible speeds-and at a reasonable cost. The microcomputer is a tool available at any time to any person of any age.
>
> The school counselor has relied primarily on the tool of the spoken word. It has been his/her trademark-the ability to interact orally with another person to resolve issues of concern to that person. But the counselor has been hampered with archaic means of retaining data needed to supplement the counseling process. The microcomputer is a new tool for the school counselor (Johnson, C. (Ed.) 1983).

The microcomputer is now seen everywhere: in the classroom, in the counselor's office, on the plane, on the train and in the home. However, there are sections of our country where computers are non-existent or available in limited numbers. President Clinton in the State of the Union Address in January 1996 stated the following:

> Every classroom in American must be connected to the information superhighway, with computers and good software, and well-trained teachers. We are working with the telecommunications industry, educators and parents to connect every classroom and every library in the entire United States by the year 2000.

The school counselor has available a whole arsenal of computer related software and materials to assist them as they work with students, parents, and others.

This workshop will address definitions, peer assistants, software, the NET /World Wide Web, popular tools for searching the Web, the price of technology, and references as they relates to technology and the school counselor.

A. DEFINITIONS:

Domain Names - part of a user's e-mail address:

president@whithouse.gov
first lady@whitehouse.gov
coy@coefs.coe.unt.edu
http://www.walmart.com
ACA@counseling.org
com-a commercial organization, business or company
edu-an education institution
int-an international organization
gov-a nonmilitary government entity
mil-a military organization
net-a network administration
org-other organizations that are nonprofit, nonacademic and non-govermental

Browser - software, such as Netscape Navigator, that translates coded data into what the user sees on the screen.

E-mail - electronic mail. Messages and information sent by using Internet addresses.

Forum - a site on the Internet where people with a similar interest can gather and share information and ideas.

Gophers - a tool for locating or browsing Internet sites. It is a system of menus developed at the University of Minnesota (home of the Golden Gophers). An Internet address that includes the word "gopher" refers to a location on the Gopher server.

Home page -a Web site, usually the first screen that appears when you locate the site.

Http - the beginning of a Wed address that stands for hypertext transfer protocol. This is part Hypertext Markup Language (HTML) used to create Wed documents.

Hyperlink - a highlighted or underlind word, phrase or image in a Web document that connects to another part of the document or to another site.

Internet -a collection of computer networks, in the same programming format, exchanging information electronically. No one person or company controls or owns the Internet. It is supported by the users who pay for access from such providers as America OnLine and CompuServe, who in turn pay regional networks for their links. The regional networks pay companies that operate and maintain the Internet circuits throughout the world.

Netiquette - a code of conduct for Internet users.

Postings - a string of newsgroup articles on the same subject.

Server - online computers that store information and distribute it on request. They usually are located at Internet provider sites, universitites or government buildings.

Snail mail -sending mail by using the postal service, which is extremely slow compared to e-mail.

Spamming - sending junk e-mail.

Thread - a string of newsgroup articles on the same subject.

Veronica - a search program for Gophers.

World Wide Web (WWW) - a network of documents connected by hyperlinks. A Web document or "site" can consist of text, graphics, video, audio and animation. A Web site address begins with http://www.

B. PEER ASSISTANTS:

Because most school have a ratio of school counselors to students above the number recommended by the American School Counselor Association (1-250), peer assistants can be a valuable resource in the counseling office. Several high schools train volunteers to assist their peers to handle both computer hardware and software effectively. Students are taught how to operate the computer and how to use the wide variety of software available. Students seeking information such as college choice, financial aid, or career information can have updated information available through the use of various software programs. Peer assistants can work with other students in learning this process. Schools that adopt this procedure discover that such a corps of "student aides" has significantly increased student use of software materials. The counselor can then process the information with the student by assisting the student in making decisions about his/her future.

C. SOFTWARE PROGRAMS:

Computer-Assisted Career-Guidance Systems - the following components are found in most systems: occupational information, armed service information, information about postsecondary institutions of higher learning, information on technical and specialized schools, financial aid information.

CIDS

Career Information Delivery Systems was a direct result of funding from the national Occupational Information Coordinating Committee (NOICC) through its State Occupational Information Coordinating Committees (SOICCs). Career information is organized in most systems on a national and state basis. The information on occupations is described in terms of its function, related occupations, conditions of work, requirements, salary, and employment outlook. It also includes hiring policies, special programs, and future employment trends.

Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB)

Distributed free of charge to high schools throughout the country, the ASVAB was developed by the Department of Defense to assist high school age students interested in exploring military careers.

Career Navigator

This program was designed specifically to assist job seekers, particularly new entrants interested in business and professional careers. Sections of the program include the following: start the program, know yourself, how to communicate, develop your job search tools, conduct your job search campaign, and land the job. Each section includes a sequence of related activities, skill-developing tasks, and time schedules.

Career Ways

This system was published by the Wisconsin Career Information System for use with high school students for educational and career planning. It contains the following modules:Career Ways Tutorial, Self-Portrait, Class Planner, Resume, and Lifestyles.

Choices

Originally developed for Canadian users, this system has been adopted by nineteen states plus the District of Columbia. Information about included occupations is divided into four categories: identification data, descriptive data, coded attribute data, and similar occupations data. Information about 2,400 two-and four-year colleges is structured in parallel fashion. This system is for general use and used mainly in educational settings.

C-Lect

Marketed by Chronicle Guidance Publications, this system also includes identification of personal temperament and interest patterns in addition to occupational and educational information. This system is for general use and used mainly in educational settings.

DISCOVER

Published by the American College Testing Program, DISCOVER is offered in five versions. DISCOVER for high schools; DISCOVER for colleges and adults; VISIONS for middle schools and VISIONS Plus both of which were developed for the Maryland SOICC, and DISCOVER for the Military. DISCOVER contains the following modules: beginning the career journey, learning about the world of work, learning about yourself, finding occupations, learning about occupations, making educational choices, planning next steps, planning your career, and making transitions. DISCOVER was originally designed for high school and college students and for colleges and adults.

Guidance Information System (GIS)

GIS provides access to ten possible files: occupational information, armed services occupations, two-year college file, four-year college file, graduate and professional school file, financial aid file, majors and career file, interest inventory score entry, career decision-making system, and state vocational school files.

System of Interactive Guidance and Information (SIGI Plus)

SIGI Plus was developed at Educational Testing Service. The philosophic basis for SIGI proposes that values identification and clarification are basic to an effective career decision process involving evaluation of the rewards and risks that accompany each option. There are nine separate modules or sections which include: introduction, self-assessment, search, information, skills, preparing, coping, deciding, and next steps.

Career-Assisted Career Guidance Systems for Elementary and Middle/Junior High Students

Choices Jr. (Middle); C-Lect Jr. (Middle); COIN JR (Middle); Visions (Middle); Discover for Middle/Junior; GIS Jr. (Middle); Career Trek (4 through middle)

D. INTERNET / WORLD WIDE WEB:

Internet World Wide Web

The "Net," as it is commonly called in our shorthand culture, offers a new tool with the potential to transform access to information in the counseling office, as well as the speed, quality and quantity of that information. Material on the Net can be as timely as news wires and satellite feeds. At the same time the storehouse of information on the Net is unequaled. It is like a real-time, all-inclusive encyclopedia that multiplies moment by moment.

The Net offers a composite library and laboratory housed in the World Wide Web's dynamic environment. The Web was created in 1992 by a software expert who wanted to make the Internet more user-friendly and accessible. The Web encouraged thousands of people to venture onto the Net, and in turn spurred entrepreneurs to invent "Web browser" software to help users find their way around.

The Net not only offers new ways to find and receive data, making us information gatherers, but it also allows us to be data publishers and distributors. With a counselor's guidance, the Net's vast resources can be transformed into a virtual, interactive and collaborative global classroom. This technology gives us a greater range of communication options with e-mail (an electronic letter), newsgroups (electronic bulletin boards that post current information on a particular topic for specific interest groups) and listservs (electronic mailing lists available by user subscription).

Web Sites for School Counselors and Educators

AskERIC Virtual Library

AskERIC Toolbox (http://ericir.syr.edu/Qa/Toolbox/)
Includes links to education-related sites.

AskERIC InfoGuides (http://ericir.syr.edu/cgi-bin/index_infoguides)
InfoGuides are similar to annotated bibliographies of resources on a particular topic.

Education Listserv Archive (gopher://ericir.syr.edu:70/11/Listservs)
This section consists of addresses for a host of education-related listservs.

Television Series Companion Materials (http://ericir.syr.edu.Virtual/Television/)
Provides material from places such as the Discovery Channel School, Newton's Apple, PBS Online, Frontline Online, C-Span, the ABC Classroom Connection, CNN Newsroom and Teen Court TV.

Apple Computer Inc.
(http:/www.info.apple.com/education/)
Information on Apple's extensive education program; also Apple Classroom of Tomorrow (http:/www.info.apple.com/)

Bell South Corp
(http://www.bstbls.com/bbs/pressreleases.html)
Press releases on Bell South's educational technology programs.

Bolt Bernaek and Newman Inc., National School Network Testbed
(http://copernicus.bbn.com/testbed2/)
BBN describes in detail a comprehensive demo project in school networking.

Booklist. American Library Association.
(http://ala.org/booklist.html)
Electronic version of "Booklist" magazine. Selection of books for adults and youth arranged by subject and genre, audio visual media and reference materials.

Young Adult Library Services Association's (YALSA)
(http://www.ala.org/yalsa/alhp/message.html)
Annotated lists of best books, quick picks and selected books and videos for young adults.

Classroom Connect on the Net
(http://wentworth.com/classroom/default.html)
Provides lesson plans, libraries, museums, science projects and other valuable resources.

D.Popular tools for searching the Web's vast and growing storehouse of information:

Alta Vista	http://altavista.digital.com
Excite	http://www.excite.com
Infoseek	http://guide.infoseek.com
Lycos	http://www.lycos.com
Netscape Navigator	http://www.netscape.com
OpenText	http://www.opentext.com:8080
WebCrawler	http://www.webcrawler.com

E. The Price of Technology

The external connections; the internal connection; the computer, video and related hardware (including the file servers, printers, scanners and other equipment needed for full function); training, and ongoing operational support.

F. References:

ASCA Counselor. Alexandria, VA: American School Counselor Association.

The Career Development Quarterly. Alexandria, VA: National Career Development Association.

Casey, J.A. (1992). Counseling using technology with at-risk youth. ERIC Digest EDO-CG-92-14. Greensboro, NC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Counseling and Personnel Services.

Counseling Today. Alexandria, VA: American Counseling Association.

Drake, L. & Rudner, L. M. (1995). Internet resources for guidance personnel. ErIC Digest EDO-CF-95-31. Greensboro, NC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Counseling and Personnel Services.

Hitchner, K.W. & Tifft-Hitchner, A. (1989). Making a Difference in College Admission. West Nyack, NY: The Center for Applied Research in Education.

Isaacson, L.E. & Brown, D. (1996). Career Information, Career counseling, and Career Development. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Johnson, C. (Ed.) (1983). Microcomputers and the School Counselor. Alexandria, VA: American School Counselor Association.

Journal of Counseling and Development. Alexandria, VA: American Counseling Association.

Sampson, Jr., J.P. (1995). Computer-assissted testing in counseling and therapy. ERIC Digest EDO-CG-9-26. Greensboro, NC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Counseling and Sstudent Services.

A CLINICAL APPLICATION OF PHYSICAL PARTITION

Koji Matsushita (Osaka City University, Kurokawa Internal Medicine)
Yuriko Matsushita (Osaka City University)

The first author is a Ph. D. candidate student in clinical psychology at the Osaka City University. He is working at the Kurokawa Internal Medicine as a clinical psychologist. He has studied the characteristics of schizophrenics and is trying to apply his idea clinically for schizophrenics along with other mental diseases. The second author is also a Ph. D. candidate in the same department. She works in many places and has tried to find a useful and clinical idea academically.

INTRODUCTION

At the 5th International Conference on Counseling in the 21st Century, the first author presented an experimental study about the importance of the "I－Basho" feeling or a psychologically comfortable space for the schizophrenic patients (Matsushita, 1995). The Japanese word "I－basho" is used in both physical and mental senses. The results indicated the importance of the psychologically comfortable space at home in which they can be protected and become safely withdrawn. Its implication is to provide the same space in outside situations other than homes so that the patients can expand their space into the outer world. On the other hand, it is also worthwhile to remember that the space in their homes should not be abundant immediately since they need to protect themselves. This means that schizophrenic patients are pathologically split, hence, uneasy and fearful, so that they need some space where they can be safely withdrawn and protected. That is the "I-basho". And a remarkable point is the fact that the patient who behaves autistically often needs a physical partition which offers the "I-basho" and protects him from being found at fault by others.

In this study, a clinical application of this physical partition is focused on and some cases are presented. Here, physical partition means any physical block that separates between the client and others or outer world. Also the hypothesis that this application can be used clinically for schizophrenics along with other mental diseases will be presented.

A SMALL, MEANINGFUL THING ~ THE HOUSING PROBLEM IN JAPAN

<CASE 1>

Takasi (an assumed name, 21 years old, male) was diagnosed as a schizophrenic who confined himself in his own room, avoiding to have meals with his family and refusing to go to hospital or to have any medication for about one year. The author had an opportunity to counsel his mother. In the process of the counseling, the author became aware that she knew many details about her son's life concerning his room strangely enough. One day the author asked "when you talk with him, do you knock on the door and ask him if you can go into his room?" Whereupon she appeared to be surprised and said "why do you ask me such a funny question? It's natural for me to do as I like because he is my son. " The author then explained about the importance of the physical partition and said "It may be a small thing for you, but if you indeed want to help him, please do not to enter his room without knocking on the door or without his permission. " She consented unwillingly at that time, but about one month later she called the aothor and said that her son went to hospital by himself and decided to take some medicine thanks to the author's advice. Now he keeps going to the rehabilitation center four times per week and looks forward to playing games with his friends on the weekend.

This case shows a problem to which the Japanese culture is related — it's the housing problem in Japan. The houses are very small, so it's very difficult for each family member to have their own room. Besides that, the door which divides each room is mostly made of wood and paper named "fusuma" which is thin and used broadly in Japan. The entrance of the house is the "gen-kan". In Japanese, "gen" means the stage of "zen" and "kan" is the gateway. That is, the "gen-kan" distinguishes between inside and outside of the house clearly, but inside the house there's no clear division. This may be related to the Japanese character which enphasizes the group more than the individuals. This piont of view may sometimes be useful in considering psychotherapy, at least in Japan, because a weak and thin door threatens the ego boundary beyond our imagination. So, keeping the personal space divided by the physical partition at home may work theraputically especially for a patient who has a fragile ego function.

<CASE 2>

Yoko (an assumed name, 20 years old, female) was diagnosed with dissociative hysteria and was treated in a ward of a mental hospital where the author worked as a clinical psychologist. She was mild-mannered and liked to do things for others, but her behavior periodically changed violenting and she would use rough speech like that of the Japanese mafia. As attendants of the ward were completely at a loss because of her violence, they had a conference to consider a better treatment for her. The author pointed out the fragility of her ego boundary especially when she was mild-mannered, and asserted the necessity of securing her against relationships with other patients.

After that she had her own room and before long talked to the author confidentially about incest with her father four years before. Three months later, she was released from the hospital and now works without difficulty using the hospital positively as a secure place which is divided physically from society.

<CASE3>

Next, a case how a physical partition was actually used in counseling will be reported.

Isamu (an assumed name, 19 years old, male), was suspected of having schizophrenia. He came with his mother to the hospital where the author worked, and at the first session they reached an agreement to start counseling together. During the first three or four sessions, the mother spoke rapidly about how terrible her son's life was at home. In contrast to her, the son said nothing and kept silent all the time during counseling. He was thin, looked severely pale and withdrawn. It seemed like he was taken control by his mother.

One day, since the author supposed that the son needed the "I-basho" especially in the viewpoint of the relationship with his mother, he suggested to put a partition between them and asked them to focus on the feeling that they had for a while and not to say anything during that time. After a few minutes, the son suddenly said in a feeble voice, "I wanna come here alone from now on. " His mother got in a panic to hear that and started to reproach him for his words. The author persuaded her and said "I think this is a very important change. How about trying to respect his own will without thinking and worrying so much. " The mother consented with the author right away, and after that the son came to the autor's room alone and learned to express his feelings little by little.

<CASE 4>

The method used in the previous case can be varied as follows. Sumiko(an assumed name 26 years old, female) was diagnosed with an eating disorder(bulimia). She was excessively eating and vomiting over and over every day. The author had had over 30sessions with her before, but there was no change in her symptoms. One day, in the process of counseling she made a reference about her mother and herself and pointed out the problems concerning the relationship with her mother, and she became slightly angry. As it was the first time for her to talk about it, the author regarded that it was a significant key of her symptoms. So he pointed to a chair next to her and said "If your mother was here now, how would you feel and what would you like to say?" As soon as he proposed that, she looked very strained and stood up suddenly. The author recognized her state and he put the partition between her and the empty chair. After a few minutes she said "The tension is relaxed now but on the other hand I feel a little lonely. " Furthermore he suggested "How about moving the partition?" She looked, thinking for a while, and then moved the partition out of the way but and put it back again between her and the chair. She repeated this action over and over every few seconds and said "I feel very lonely. I wanna be held tight by my mother!" She burst into tears and said "But now it's difficult and sometimes dangerous for me to be close to her. So, I will imagine my own partition and keep her at distance in my mind. "

She figured out her own strategy by herself, and before long she said to the author that the symptoms of her eating disorder had decreased 60%.

DISCUSSION

At the beginning of this report, we pointed out a hypothesis that the application of a physical partition could be used clinically for schizophrenics along with other diseases. In these cases, despite being only 4, we could verify this possibility of the hypothesis that a physical partition could have a theraputic effect on patients who are affected with mental diseases. However, it is worthwhile to remember that these four examples are at most the experiences between the first author and his patients, that is, the theraputic effects presented in these cases were based upon his personality, the relationships between the author and his patients, the features of Japanese culture, especially the housing problem as we mentioned above, and other factors.

Also, one more theme was implied in these cases. The fragile ego boundary can be protected or supported by the physical partition, that is to say, the function of an auxiliary ego. In the process of counseling, the patients introject the image of a physical partition in their mind so that they can find out their own strategy to care themselves and to go through their lives better, based on this image.

REFERENCES

Matsushita, K. A study on the "I-basho" feeling or the space for the schizophrenic patients(in Japanese), Unpublished Master's thasis, Osaka City University, 1993.

Matsushita, K. and Mizutani, Y. A Psychologically Comfortable Space for The Schizophrenic Patients in Their Rehabilitative Stage, The 5th International Conference on Counseling in the 21st Century, 249-253, December 1995.

Keep Mental Health By Art Recreation

Wang Gongbin

The associate professor and the head of counselor education program of Dept. Education at Beijing Normal University. His nine-year research and teaching experiences has covered Mental Health Counseling, Counseling Technique and Cognitive Psychology. He also served as counselor in the Mental Health Central of BNU.

Introduction

A distinct characteristic of the technology age is that people have more and more leisure time while the way of recreation are getting more and more material and unified. The promotion of recreation by technology is mainly reflected in strengthening of sensory stimulus, now people can buy transient sensory pleasure more easily. Their attention was transferred from stress temporarily, but they couldn't get real spiritual enjoyment and the relaxation was limited. Recreation in the age of technology is also highly unified. The majority are likely to be involved in the popular activities without sharing the quality of being initiative, creative and unique. one of the fundamental reason is that the age of technology is an age of copy, producers always chase the large-scale efficiency to maximize the profile, instead of caring for the spiritual interest of the individual. Each step-up of technology has been fully used to produce more sensory attractive and lower unit-cost recreation products.

In contrast with this, art recreation always mean being high devoted, creative and great spiritual pleasure, thus it plays an positive role to keep mental health. Sometimes it is even taken as a method of psychotherapy (Gladding, S. T. ,1992, p474-477). But in the age of technology, while the stress become more and more popular, art recreation is flooded by material recreation step by step.

The following report is based on the observation in a remote county in Northwest China. Though the local economy is underdeveloped, the folk arts activities are very colorful and wide-spread, and have been main ways people spend their leisure time. Here, we are not trying to conclude that this art recreation can only get link with a non-technology age during which economy is under developed, but to provide a sort of reference to those people who are getting more and more involved with the technology age: How the technology-independent art recreation spreads out and how it promotes people's mental health.

I . Overview of Folk Art Activities in Ansai

The place we chose is a small county called Ansai in North Shaanxi region in China. It lies in the inner part of the famous Loess Plateau, with an area of 3,000 square kilometers, and a population of 150,000. It is a place with poor transport facility, bad geological condition, serious loss of water and earth, and low degree of industrial development. The average income per person for one year is only about 600 RMB. But historically, it is one of the place where the Chinese nationality originated. there are 94 places of New Stone Implement Age relies and 81 places of Qin and Han dynasty culture relies.

Benefited from the rich cultural tradition, the folk art activities are quit outstanding in china no matter judging by degree of popularizing or the art quality, though the level of economical development in Ansai is much lower than that of most place across china. The most famous activities are: Ansai Paper Cutting, Ansai Waist Drum and Ansai folk song.

Paper cutting is a kind of ancient folk art form with simple materials. It's easy to learn but sentimentally expressive. The Ansai Paper Cutting shows the magical imagination with primitive and unsophisticated style. It's deeply loved by the general public. The works of Ansai paper cutting are often shown in national and international fine arts exhibitions and awarded many times. More than 1,000 pieces of works have been collected by the first class museums in china, such as Chinese Art Gallery. More than 600 pieces have been stored up in museums abroad. Paper cutting artist are often invited to visit other country. They also gave lectures in the Central Conservatory of Fine Arts and evoke wide repercussions.

Waist Drum is an square dancing art that has lasted several thousand years. The style of Ansai Waist Drum is rigorous and graceful, natural and unrestrained. It is one of the most influential drum dances in china, and once was awarded the highest prize in the National Competition of Folk Dance. In the open ceremony of 11th Asian Games held in Beijing, Ansai Waist Drum shocked and excited the audience as the starting program.

As the home of folk song, there are several thousand of folk songs which are well kept and still often sung by many people in Ansai. He Yutang, the top one of local folk song singer, has been called " King of Folk Song " in China. His songs list is countless, and his rang of voice is several degrees wider than " King of high C " Luciano Pavarotti. Recently, he has been invited to hold a solo concert in Beijing Concert Hall - the "Carnage Concert Hall in China".

II. Characteristics of Folk Art Activities

1. General Participation

Essentially, folk art activities is a kind of popularized recreation that everybody is delighted in joining in. Under the long-time nurture of cultural atmosphere, nearly all the peasants are embroiled into the local folk art activities more or less in Ansai. It's mainly males who take part in playing waist drum while females are usually involved in paper cutting and embroidery. It is estimated that one third of total population can play waist drum (Yu peng, 1994). There is almost no young man who can't play. Most of the villages have waist drum team of their own. Every year many teams take part in the competition held in county. During the time when an activity was organized for making the TV series Yellow River, a team of more than one thousand people was easily formed.

As to paper cutting, it's as usual as cooking to a local woman. As roughly counted, the number of woman who are good at paper cutting amounts more than 10,000 (Jin Zhilin, 1994). As for imitating and duplicating, almost every woman can do that. When going around a village, you can find the work of the hostess on the windows and the wall in every house.

2. Good Succession

Folk art activities have long lasting continuity in Ansai. Take paper cutting for a example. the age of skilled master ranged from ten to eighty. Woman kept the patterns learned or created on the wall of stove by smoking so as to pass on to their descendants. When a old woman by the surname of Yan was immediately before her death, she put a lot of her beautiful works on the window and walls around bed, and left a pack of cutting patterns to her daughter-in-low.

The picture is more clear in waist drum playing. Old people act as coach, and mid-age serve as organizers. In a playing waist drum team, the front rows are the young man, the middle rows are the younger lads while at the back are teenagers. Such an structure is always kept no mater how time goes by, so that the organization of the staff and the quality of training would be well guaranteed.

Such good continuity ensure that "tradition" is well reserved as living fossil. One of the most popular cutting patterns - "knot hair girl" is almost the same as that on a Shang Dynasty (1,500 B. C.) jade piece excavated (Jin Zhilin, 1985). And there is no deference between the dancing postures of today's waist drum and that on the bas-relief in the Han dynasty Tomb.

3. Completely Devotion

To the individual who take part in the folk art activities, self-enjoyment is the main, sometime the only purpose, while joining the activities, they themselves can gain great spiritual pleasure, so they are very enthusiastic.

For example, it's so easy to gather all the member of waist drum team for training that all the team leader has to do is to beat a big drum in the square, there is no necessity of any oral informing or order before. As the members say: as soon as they hear the sound of the drum, it looks that their bodies themselves can't help dancing. They will stop doing whatever they are doing, and rush towards the drum. To them, playing waist drum itself is purpose. Once they start dancing, they'll always forget themselves, this is similar with Maslow's "Top experience"(Maslow, 1968, p95-100). During the Spring Festival when waist drum team dance from door to door to greet the local people, they sometimes walk half an hour to greet an out of the way family. Though facing to only several onlookers, they still dance with a high spirit and become sweaty. In their dance, then pass the joy and benediction inner their heart to the hosts.

So are the women's paper cutting and embroidery etc.. They make full use of all their spare time to create art works to decorate all the things that can be beautified. Even for some article that can't be seen by others, such as "Doudu" (a kind of underwear), shoe-pad etc., they still spend plenty of time to paint and embroider. While doing this, they are immersed in a world of arts. It was said a famous local paper cutting artist, Gao Jinai, can't hear anything even if calling her name loudly , although she is a lively woman, enjoys talking and laughing with other people during the rest time.

4. High Creativity

The participants can fully reveal their personality and be highly creative while joining in the art activities. Ansai paper cutting reflects the miraculous imagination of the artist. If ask to express the same theme, different people will produce different works with its own style, differently conceived and showing unique appeal. Most of the artists usually create works according to their imagination by using scissors directly instead of using any draft. They emphasize being willful ("led by heart") while creating. They mean to express feeling naturally according to the circumstances. For instance, the image of a tiger can be charming by naive if means to amuse her baby, whereas it will become ferocious and scary if it's meant to be put up on the door to ward off the evil spirits (AFHRS, 1989).

When singing the folk songs, people often improvise it . The most famous tune is just called "Xin Tian You" which means walk freely in the sky. According to the tunes with which most people are familiar, the signers always improvise different lyrics to express their own passion at that time. During the Spring Festival, when the waist drum team greet local family from door to door, the song sung by head of team are always based on different situation in every family, none of them could be completely repeated. As to waist drum playing, although it is a collective activity, a excellent head can not only evoke the enthusiasm of the members, but also improvise new movement combination and pass the information to every body correctly, then all the members will devote themselves to the new creation excitingly.

III The Positive Influence of Folk Art Activities on Mental Health

The main content of mental health are described as: positive self-estimate, adaptation to circumstances and harmonious social intercourse(Wang Xiaodao, 1994, p18-22). Folk art activities plays an important role to improve all these respects.

1. An Important Way to Keep a Positive Self-image

In a monotonous agricultural environment with limited opportunity to develop education and career, folk art activities became the important way for people to express themselves and reveal their personality. In their devoted and creative art activities, people can enjoy total mental freedom, realize their own value, enhance self-pride and self-confidence, and keep a positive self-image.

A great support to their confidence comes from the respects by others. In Ansai, people judge young people by seeing whether they playing waist drum well for males and cutting beautiful works for females. People think that paper cutting is a symbol of intelligence and deftness of a girl, so that when a young man dates a girls in her house, his eyes would glance at the windows and the walls to see whether there are paper cutting works or not and whether they are beautiful. There's a very famous folk song which reads: "If get a daughter, she should be clever, pomegranate and peony, she cut them anywhere". If a window of a cave-dwelling was not decorated with any paper cutting, it would be called "blind-eyed window".

To a young man, playing waist drum is the best way to show his vigor and beauty, brave and dexterity. thus everybody pay a lot of effort to become a formal member of waist drum team in a high competition. In fact, the most beautiful ladies in the village consider certainly it an honor to have an outstanding waist drummer as her spouse.

2. An Efficient Coping with Stress

People who living in an non-technology also meet their own stress. They work very hard to making a living, but still have many problem concerning necessities of life due to the limited nature resource and under developed economy. It is Art recreation to provide an efficient way to reduce the stress caused by environmental pressure.

In folk art activities, people get spiritual comfort by letting off the sentiments, that is why the waist drum dance is always so bold and powerful, the folk song so sonorous and resonant, and the paper cutting so exaggerating and imaginary. When people are immersed in the art activities, willfully, the pressure in real life would be less pressing, less important and less irresistible. Being influenced deeply by the long-term widespread folk art activities, people have developed out-going character and sanguine disposition. Their self-entertained activities are called frankly as "rich enjoyment to poor life ", the Spring Festival Events as "happiness making".

In folk art activities, people are involved to explore and enjoy, express and create beauty. The beauty bring them far away from the monotonous and unsatisfactory reality and into an idea spiritual world. The rough outlined but decorative paper works reflects perfectly that how people cut, reform and beautify the ordinary things in their eyes of aesthetics: While the women are creating, the world they face to has been changed by a large exaggerating, organizing, abstracting and transforming, and various simple but beautiful patterns stored in their memory before also have been made use of to decorate that world (AFHRS, 1989).

People get a new understanding towards life when they return from the art world. They know better about acceptance and thanks giving. When the time of harvest comes, people will hold celebration from bottom of their heart, although the things they got is far from rich. The most important celebration will be held in Spring Festival and it will last for a whole month. Spring Festival is the hightide for all kinds of folk art activities. Not only their bodies but also their souls would be relax completely and being renewed during that time, then they will start the fight for a better life hopefully and vigorously in the coming year.

3. A Bridge to Improve Social Intercourse

Folk art activities are so widespread that they have become a important part of social communication. And, as being held collectively those activities would enhance the group cohesion. Those who take part in folk art activities always get into harmonic social intercourse.

In Ansai, women are often seen gather together to talk about paper cutting art and techniques. once a new and beautiful pattern comes out, it will be popularized and improved among houses very soon. Within the Spring Festival, when women visit others to greet them, they always bring some pieces of paper cutting works which are treasured by themselves as gifts to present.

Wedding ceremony is the most important event in the village. Everybody will go to give a hand. Undoubtedly the local band and waist drum team wouldn't lag behind, even musicians from neighbor village would joint in, to "send happiness". Thus, one family's business is the business of the whole village and has become a joyful art recreational activities.

4. Some Degree Function of Psychotherapy

Sometimes a accidents in the life would cause a sort of psychological disorder. When this happened, art activities can somehow play a role to help the patient recover. There are several examples among those paper cutting artist in Ansai. the famous late artist Cao Dianxiang, had experienced a strong stimulus, when she was alive, her ears were deafened by the sound of a shooting gun. She got into serious shortsighted and suffered from several kinds of illnesses, she became old too early. But, paper cutting helped her restoring the mental calmness. Her devotion to paper cutting brought her a strong will and an optimistic disposition. In paper cutting, she found a spiritual substance to live. However, later when her right thumb was amputated for a disease thus she couldn't cut anymore, she pass away the next year.

Another famous artist Chang Zhengfang, had been well known in the area for her wonderful paper cutting work since she was child. She also suffered from mental disorders several years ago. It was paper cutting that comforted her. Whenever she was anxious, she just picked up a pair of scissors. She kept cutting as if couldn't be controlled until she felt relieved. The interesting thing is that the works she created at such a time appeared to more miraculous (Shanqiao, 1994).

IV. Implication

In contrast with material recreation in the age of technology, art recreation always mean being high devoted, individually creative. For its great spiritual pleasure, it obvious benefit to keep mental health either for the people who living in technology age or those in non-technology age. In the home of folk art, tradition and collective atmosphere involve most people in art recreation. With a good self-confidence and harmony social intercourse, they enjoy their beautified life. It seems that the folk art activities are passing away from this modern times, but the inner spirit of them should be kept when we spend our leisure time in this stressful age: create something, express yourself, share with others.

Reference

1. Ansai Culture and History Research Society (AFHRS, 1989). Ansai Paper-cutting Art, Yanan University Press
2. Gladding, S. T. (1992): Counseling - A Comprehension Profession, 2nd Edition.
3. Jin Zhilin (1994): Art in Loess Land, Society, V29. Special Issue for Chinese Ansai Folk Art
4. Jin Zhilin (1985): The Mold-making System of Chines Folk Art, Art Research, 1985.3
5. Maslow, A. H. (1968): Toward a Psychology of Being, 2nd Edition, D. Van Nostrand Company
6. Shanqiao (1994) Folk Artist in Ansai Society, V29. Special Issue for Chinese Ansai Folk Art
7. Wang Xiaodao (1990). Mental Health, Zhejiang Science and Technology Press.
8. Yu peng (1994): Ansai Wait Drum Society, V29. Special Issue for Chinese Ansai Folk Art
9. Zhang Xinde (1994): Ansai Wait Drum, Chinese Peace Press.

Contact address: Dept. of Education, Beijing Normal University, Beijing 100088, P.R.China
Tel: (86-10) 62208004 (O) Fax: (86-10) 62200567 E-mail: Sdjy@bnu.edu.cn

Preliminary Exploration of Self-Esteem Construct: A Face Validity Study of the Index of Self-Esteem with a Chamoru University Student Sample

Margaret T. Artero-Boname, Ph.D.

Dr. Artero-Boname is the Program Chair of the Master of Arts Counseling Program at the College of Education, University of Guam. She is the Chair of the Emotional and Spiritual Health Committee of the Wellness Council and the Chair of the Discipline and Appeals Committee. Dr. Artero-Boname is the Research Representative for the Guam Chapter of the Phi Delta Kappa. She is an indigenous Chamoru, born and raise in the island of Guam.

Self-esteem Defined

Coopersmith (1967) defined self-esteem as:

> the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself: it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval, and indicates the extent to which the individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful, and worthy. In short, self-esteem is a *personal* judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes the individual holds toward himself. It is a subjective experience which the individual conveys to others by verbal reports and other overt expressive behavior (p. 4-5).

According to Beane, Lipka, and Ludewig (1980) self-esteem is one of the components of self-perception. Self-perception has three dimensions: self-concept, self-esteem, and values. Self-concept refers to how we evaluate ourselves based on the roles we play and personal attributes; self-esteem refers to the level of satisfaction we affix to that evaluation; and our values affect our self-esteem in that we make decisions based on what is important to us (p. 84).

Cooley (1902) believed that individuals based their evaluation of themselves on the reaction of others toward them. He called this "the looking glass self" (p.136). The self-esteem of individuals is made up of the reflection they see of themselves in others' reactions to them resulting in good or bad feelings about themselves. These perceptions may then shape the individual's capabilities. For example, it has been postulated that a positive self-esteem is a viable ingredient in academic success (Coopersmith, 1967; Kaplan, 1995). It is individuals with high self-esteem who welcome challenges and are not easily frustrated. They can work independently, without constant supervision (Cooley, 1902; Morrow-Kleindl, 1990).

Culture and Self-esteem

According to Wood (1991), self-esteem is a cultural concept. There have been several studies done outside the Western culture on self-esteem. Chinese children who reside in China and those who moved to the United States of America have been given self-esteem measures for comparative analysis with American children. Based on Western measures of self-esteem, Chinese children in comparison to American children were less likely to believe their physical features were pleasing, felt they were unimportant members of their class and family, were uneasy meeting new people, and down rated their self-competence and self-worth. The Chinese children consistently had lower self-image than did the American children (Chiu, 1989; Stigler, Smith, & Mao, 1985; Turner, & Mo, 1984).

Research conducted with Australian and Japanese college students showed that cultural differences do influence decisional self-esteem (Radford, Mann, Ohta, & Nakane, 1993). Ando (1994) states that the Japanese view self as socially interdependent as compared to Americans' independent view of the self; to control one's emotions and get along well with others is a source of positive self-esteem for the Japanese.

A study done on Vietnamese Amerasians (Felsman, Johnson, Leong, & Felsman, 1989) indicated that Amerasians experienced high levels of general psychological distress and measured low in self-esteem. Porter, and Washington (1993) reviewed the theoretical models and the research done on self-esteem among Asian Americans, Hispanic, and African Americans and found that these studies fail to make a connection between group or personal self-esteem and sociocultural forces. In critiquing the Culture-Free Self-Esteem Inventories (Culture-Free SEI, Battle, 1992), Brooke (1995) concluded that the instrument may not be culture-free, e. g., difficulty expressing one's feelings is measured as low self-esteem. However culturally, Asians generally do not express their feelings (D. W. Sue & D. Sue, 1990). Crocker, Lubtanen, Blaine, and Broadnax (1994) studied the psychological well-being and collective self-esteem of White, Black, and Asian college students and noted that research generally focuses on the individual self. On the other hand, minorities look at group membership as an important aspect of the self. American words used in instruments for self-esteem, when translated into the Chinese, Filipino, and Japanese terminologies, generally resulted in different connotations and thus affected the validity of the instrument (Ito, & Tashima, 1981). Muray (1996) found that African-American, Caucasian, Latina, and Chinese-American girls showed differences in their self-esteem with the African-American girls scoring the highest on the measures, followed by Latina, Caucasian, and the Chinese-American girls scoring the lowest.

Guam has its own share of studies on self-esteem. A study of Guam high school students on the relationship between career decisiveness and self-esteem was found to be significantly correlated, although, Guam students ranked in the intermediate to low levels in self-esteem (Uhlenhake-Thompson, 1993). Fourth, fifth, and sixth grade Filipino students scored significantly higher on self-esteem after learning more about their culture than those in the control group (Miller, 1982). There is a statistically significant positive correlation between self-esteem and academic achievement with seventh and eighth grade Guam students (Jessee-Jones, 1995). When looking only at the Chamoru and Filipino samples, self-esteem and academic achievement variables were not significantly correlated. They were, however, for the Asian samples.

The Island of Guam, the Chamoru Culture and the University of Guam

Guam is located in the Micronesia region between Hawaii and the Philippine Islands. The indigenous people of Guam are called Chamorus. The indigenous culture has been modified through centuries of Spanish control followed by American possession since 1898, which was interrupted briefly by the Japanese occupation of the island during WWII. The Chamorus are a tightly knit community who value group cohesiveness rather than individualism. Family problems are kept within the functional family unit which includes the nuclear family plus the grandparents, uncles, aunts, and different relations. To do otherwise is considered being disrespectful to the family. Recognizing ones own abilities publicly is frowned upon and is regarded as evidence of conceit and excessive self-importance. The birth of a child, a marriage, and a death in the family are all greeted with a special ceremony which includes members of the island community. The Chamorus assist each other in these ceremonies and celebrations by helping the family prepare the food, or donate food or money. All of these activities operate to reinforce bonds between the extended family members and across broader segments of the community.

The University of Guam (UOG) is a public Land Grant institution and has the mission of serving the people of Guam and the Western Pacific region. UOG grants baccalaureate and master's degrees similar to those of other universities. The student population, approximately 3,500, is multicultural, consisting of students from Guam, the Philippines, the Commonwealth of the Northern Marianas, the Continental United States, the Federated States of Micronesia, the Republic of Belau, the Republic of the Marshalls, Korea, Japan, and China. The sample for this study was Chamoru students from UOG.

Self-Esteem and Ethnic Identity

Studies show a positive relationship existed between ethnic identity and self-esteem among Black adolescents (Paul, & Fischer, 1980). Similar relationships exist among Anglo-American and Mexican-American junior high school students (Grossman, Wirt, & Davids, 1985). In contrast, no relationship was found between ethnic identity and self-esteem in a study on Black and White college students (White, & Burke, 1987) and Italian Australians (Rosenthal, & Cichello, 1986). Based on the stage model of ethnic identity, studies showed that Asian-American, Black, Mexican-American, and White adolescents and college students with higher stages of ethnic identity have higher self-esteem than those with lower stages of ethnic identity (Phinney, 1989; Phinney & Alipuria, 1990).

Phinney (1990, 1991) opined that ethnic identity is essential to the psychological functioning and self-esteem of ethnic minority groups. He extensively reviewed the research on ethnic identity in adolescents and adults and concluded that reliable and valid measures of ethnic identity need to be devised.

The purpose of this study is to determine whether Chamoru students evaluating a standardized self-esteem instrument, developed and normed in the U.S., agree that it does measure self-esteem. The instrument used in this study is the Index of Self-Esteem (ISE, Hudson, 1974). There is a problem using instruments with populations that are not included in the norming group. Studies using Western developed and normed measures of self-esteem with non-western culture children, in general, show low self-esteem with these non-western cultures as compared to the American children (Chiu, 1989; McDaniel, & Soong, 1981; Radford, Mann, Ohta, & Nakane, 1993; Stigler, Smith, & Mao, 1985; Turner, & Mo, 1984).

Method

Sample

The sample consisted of 50 University of Guam student volunteers from an Introduction to Psychology class. The majority of the sample were freshman students (66%) and sophomores (22%). The college major most frequently identified was Education (30%), followed by 26% of the students who were "Undecided." The rest of the sample identified majors from 10 other fields. The mean age of the sample was 19.66 years with a standard deviation of 3.46. The age ranged from 17 to 37 years with only one person over 29 years. There was approximately equal representation of men and women as reported by the survey administrator.

Measures

The instrument consisted of three parts with parts one and two developed locally. The first part dealt with demographic information; the second defined self-esteem and then instructed the participants to (a) describe a person with high or positive self-esteem; and to (b) describe a person with low or negative self-esteem. The third part of the instrument was the Index of Self-Esteem (ISE, Hudson, 1974).

The ISE was modified for this study. The participants were instructed to rate how each item relates generally to self-esteem using a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*no relation to self-esteem*) to 5 (*definitely relates to self-esteem*) and to explain their responses after each item. The original ISE instructed participants to rate themselves on each item from 1 (*rarely or none of the time*) to 5 (*most or all of the time*). The purpose of modifying the ISE was to address the issue of validity with respect to self-esteem as judged by a student subgroup belonging to the Chamoru culture.

Procedure

The ISE was administered to student volunteers from the Introduction to Psychology class during three different administrations outside their scheduled class time. Students were given verbal instructions on all three parts of the instrument before they began. All volunteers were given the ISE regardless of their ethnicity. A total of 138 students participated, 50 of whom identified themselves as Chamorus. The ISEs of the 50 Chamoru students were selected for analysis in this study.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Research question: Is there agreement among the Chamoru students that the standardized self-esteem instrument, ISE, developed and normed in America does indeed measure self-esteem with the Chamoru sample? The analysis of data indicated that it is valid for this population. The mean, standard deviation, and the rank of all 25 ISE items are found on Table 1 (see Appendix). The mean score of 19 of the items ranged between 4.02 to 4.72. These scores were on the high end of the Likert scale which is an indicator that the students believed the ISE items strongly relate to self-esteem. The highest mean score was item 3 (4.72) followed by items 10 (4.60) and 11 (4.60). Item 12 had the lowest mean score (3.10) and, although the mode was a 5, only 26% of the students selected it as such. The mode for 21 of the items was a 5 (definitely relates to self-esteem). Consistent with the findings, using frequency distribution, over 70% of the subjects selected items 3, 10, and 11 as being closely related to self-esteem.

Content Analysis of ISE Items

The comments given for each item indicated that the students understood the objective of the study, i.e., to rate each ISE item relative to self-esteem. To illustrate this point, example items are described in this section to include: (a) the three with the highest mean scores (items 3, 10, 11); and (b) the eight with potential cultural differences (items 19, 24, 12, 4, 5, 7, 22, 25).

On item number three, "I feel that I am a beautiful person", the general comments were that if people see themselves as beautiful, they believe others will also see them as beautiful, and as a result, think positively about themselves. All comments indicated that students identified this statement as closely relating to positive self-esteem.

On the opposite side of beauty, is item number 11, "I feel ugly." Students' remarked that if people perceive themselves as ugly, they will think people see them as such. Feeling ugly indicates a rejection of oneself and a low self-esteem. "If you feel ugly about yourself your esteem will be lowered." Of the 50 students, 82% wrote comments and all their remarks suggested that a person who feels ugly has negative self-esteem.

Closely related to perception of ugliness is item number 10, "I think I am a dull person." The respones point to the idea that people may think negatively of themselves. "When one thinks they are dull, they put themelves down which is definitely related to their overall impression of themselves." The rest of the comments reflected that people who think they are dull have low self-esteem.

Comments made on eight particular items may reflect potential problems due to cultural differences. First, number 19 reads, "I feel like a wall flower when I go out", 22% of the students indicated they did not know the meaning of the term "wall flower." This is a culturally specific term. There may be a higher percentage who did not know the term but declined to declare it.

Second, in response to item 24, "I am afraid I will appear foolish to others", 20% of the students indicated that this item may not be seen as clearly related to the concept of self-esteem. Comments include: "Doesn't explain that this person has a positive or negative self-esteem (feeling) about themselves"; "Everyone is afraid to be foolish around others for fear of a put down."

Third, in item 12, "I feel that others have more fun than I do", students argued that it was not apparent how this item is identified with self-esteem. "Based on experience. Doesn't really deal with self-esteem. Concept of you having fun doesn't show if you lack or have confidence in yourself"; "The level of fun is dependent on individual likes, dislikes and other factors unrelated to self-esteem."

On the fourth through the eighth items, a handful of students considered the items relating to self-esteem but indicated that a person who rated themselves high on them have negative character traits. They are the following: number 4, "When I am with other people I feel they are glad I am with them"; number 5, "I feel that people really like to talk with me"; number 7, "I think I make a good impression on others"; number 22, "I feel that people really like me very much"; and number 25, "My friends think very highly of me." Students declared that people rating themselves high on these items are egotistical, are a bore, and are conceited. "High esteem! Very egotistical but can go well in life"; "One self-conceited statement"; "Tends to shift towards self-obsession (big head)."

Supplemental Questions

In the analysis of this data, the remarks of the students were grouped according to like responses describing a person with high or positive self-esteem; and one with low or negative self-esteem.

Students described people with high self-esteem as those who have a positive outlook on life and self. They are optimistic, confident in things they do, and comfortable with who they are and where they are in life. High self-esteem individuals exude happiness, are friendly, and enjoy the company of others. These individuals have good feelings about themselves and the way they look. They are highly motivated, value and believe in themselves, and are not afraid to speak their mind.

Students described people with low or negative self-esteem as those who have a negative attitude about themselves or life. They often are depressed, insecure, do not feel good about themselves, and do not like themselves. People with low self-esteem do not talk to others; they are introverted, shy, and quiet isolating themselves from others. These individuals continually put themselves down, are always worried about how people see them, and are extremely self conscious.

For both high and low self-esteem, students gave some descriptions consistent with the ISE items and some that were not. Descriptions that were consistent with the ISE for high self-esteem were confidence in self; possess a positive outlook on life; feels good about self and the way one looks; and not afraid to speak one's mind. Descriptions consistent with the ISE for low self-esteem include putting self down and making negative statements of self.

Discussion

Implications

The Chamoru students all agreed that the ISE does relate to self-esteem, as they understood it. This suggests that the ISE can be used to measure the self-esteem of Chamoru students.

According to the results of the study, feeling beautiful or ugly are very strong indicators of whether a person's self-esteem is positive or negative. The students' views were split almost evenly between the idea of beauty as a physical attribute versus an inner quality. Students did not identify feeling ugly as being physically ugly, but rather as a perception from within. Perhaps if the study had older participants these two items might not have been rated so highly.

Students' descriptions of people with high or low self-esteem showed general agreement with the ISE. This may suggest a more Western understanding of self-esteem influenced by pursuing a degree. It could mean that self-esteem is a universal construct that spans culture.

The following are some sources of potential cultural bias within the ISE: (a) semantic credibility of the Index, e. g., the use of the term wall flower is not an expression in the Chamoru culture so its concept was not understood; (b) some student indicated that the ability to have fun did not relate to self-esteem, as fun is transient in nature, not relating to self-esteem which is more enduring; (c) appearing foolish seems to some as being the same as losing face, which in the Chamoru culture has heightened importance as has been noted for Asians (D. W. Sue & D. Sue, 1990); (d) the notion that friends think highly of them, which in the Western culture is desirable and denotes positive self-esteem, is associated by some with conceit and egoism.

Limitations of the Study

The sample primarily consisted of freshmen college students with the mean age of 19.66. A sample including older subjects may give a more accurate picture of whether there is broad agreement or not with a standardized (Western) measure of self-esteem. The study was conducted with only college students. Perhaps a sample which included non-college students would yield different results. The Chamoru students who participated in the study may not be representative of the general Chamoru population.

Since the focus of the study was to see how the ethnic group, Chamorus, would respond to the ISE, gender was not an issue. The results of the study could be expanded further if gender were identified. Caution is advised in using the results of the study with other ethnic groups and with Chamorus outside the University of Guam.

Conclusion and Recommendations

For a more through analysis of data, the following information about the participants would be helpful: birth place; years of residence in Guam; ethnicity of both parents'; name of village; language(s) spoken. It is recommended that future studies include older age group and Chamorus outside UOG for more conclusive evidence validating a standardized (Western) measure of self-esteem. It is also recommended that another instrument be used which measures different aspects of self-esteem.

In conclusion, this exploratory study was conducted to determine whether Chamoru students appear to understand self-esteem in a fashion that supports the face validity of the self-esteem construct presented by the ISE. The analysis of data indicated that the ISE has face validity for this population. The study also showed that the students in this sample had very clear pictures of a person with a high self-esteem and one with a low self-esteem and that the qualities stated were in agreement with that of the ISE.

References

Ando, K. (1994). Japanese view of self--Is it unique? Japan Labor Bulletin, 33(3) [On-line].

Battle, J. (1992). Culture-free self-esteem inventories (2nd ed.). Austin, TX: PRO-ED.

Beane, J A., Lipka, R. P., & Ludewig, J. W. (1980). Synthesis of research on self-concept. Educational Leadership, 38, 84-89.

Brooke, S., (1995). Critical analysis of the Culture-free self-esteem inventories [Review of the test Culture-free self-esteem inventories]. Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, 27, 248-252.

Chiu, L. H. (1989). Self-esteem of American and Chinese children: A cross-cultural comparison (Report No. CG022156). Indiana: Indiana University at Kokomo. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 313 633)

Cooley, C. H. (1902). Human nature and social order. New York: Scribner and Sons.

Coopersmith, S. (1981). Self-esteem inventory. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.

Coopersmith, S. (1967). The antecedents of self-esteem. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman and Company.

Crocker, J., Lubtanen, R., Blaine, B., & Broadnax , S. (1994). Collective self-esteem and psychological well-being among White, Black, and Asian college students. Society for Personality and Social Psychology, Inc., 20,(5), 505-513.

Felsman, J. K., Johnson, M. C., Leong, F. T. L., & Felsman, I. C. (1989). Vietnamese Amerasians: Practical implications of current research (Report No. CG022122). Hanover, New Hampshire: Dartmouth Medical School, Department of Psychiatry, & Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University, Department of Psychology. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 313 604)

Grossman, B., Wirt, R., & Davids, A. (1985). Self-esteem, ethnic identity, and behavioral adjustment among Anglo and Chicano adolescents in West Texas. Journal of Adolescence, 8, 57-68.

Hawkins, J. D. (1994). Is there a correlation between self-esteem, achievement, and behavior. The ASCA Counselor, 31, 16-17.

Holly, W. J. (1987). Student self-esteem and academic success. Oregon School Study Council Bulletin, p. 1.

Hudson, W. W. (1974). A measurement package for clinical workers (Tech. Rep. No. 08301-3). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, School of Social Work.

Ito, K., & Tashima, E. (1981). Asian American self-concept. (Report No. UD022681). Los Angeles, CA: UCLA, Asian American Studies Center. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 228 340)

The Evolution of Individualism in the Western Hemisphere and Its Implications for an East-West Dialogue

Don MacDonald, Ph.D.
Professor, Department of Family Psychology
Seattle Pacific University
Seattle, WA 98119

For more than two decades many human services professionals in the United States have increasingly sought to understand how their professions operate vis-à-vis multicultural and multiethnic contexts (Atkinson, 1983; Bryson & Cody, 1973; Mays, Rubin, Sabourin, & Walker, 1996). I seek to support this enterprise by fostering a dialogue on the history and function of individualism and community relations in the Western Hemisphere. Hopefully, this perspective will promote understanding which, in turn, will support intercultural discussions.

Western civilizations north of the Mediterranean Sea and north of Central America attribute much of their technological and military success to individualism and ideas (e.g., scientific methods) associated with it. While these ideas seem to have helped advance the West, they have exacted costs as well. One of the costs may be a compromise to caring thoughts and actions as expressed through community actions. Paradoxically, compromised caring might contribute to the undoing of civilizations that individualism helped construct.

Compromised caring, attributable in part to individualism, is a loss to Western civilizations. Consider some examples from the United States. It is increasingly difficult to get volunteers for community organizations or activities, the U.S. is one of the most violent nations in the world, victims of violence cannot expect to get assistance from witnesses, urban neighbors often do not know each other much less help each other, and extended family is often seen as a burden to be avoided rather than as a resource or an opportunity to nurture. Titles of some popular books (e.g., *Looking out for number one*), magazines (e.g., *Self*), and music (e.g., "I've Got to be Me") denote an individual only emphasis as well. When the enculturation process constantly tells citizens that the individual is paramount, that we have few responsibilities for others, and that caring acts are best provided only by nuclear family members and professional care-givers, it is small wonder the most frequent complaints brought into psychotherapy by late Twentieth Century self-referred clients are alienation from others and purposelessness (Cherlin, 1996; Cushman, 1992).

It would be naïve to posit that all erosion to caring follows from radical individualism, as other factors (e.g., rapid pace of life, urbanization) are associated as well. Yet it would also be a mistake to overlook the subtle influence this force exerts in the general cultural milieu.

What was lost, though, may be regained. Inasmuch as an integral part of caring involves reciprocal relationships, individualistic citizens may gradually relearn to embrace such relationships and experience those aspects of caring that reciprocal relationships foster. Interestingly, as I shall present later, science may provide an entree for reconnecting individual and communal.

Many Eastern Hemisphere civilizations practice the type of reciprocal relationships that would benefit the Western civilizations to relearn. In order to change, it is important to understand how Western civilizations acquired a radical individualistic orientation. With such understanding, then, we (a) realize that while the past exerts powerful influences over the present and future, it does not determine either and we can make intentional choices about our orientations to the world, (b) retrace our steps to where our ancestors left community behind and take another path or (c) avoid repeating some of the same mistakes our ancestors made. Dialogue with those whose cultures have retained a communal orientation will hopefully help those of us who are individually oriented consider different ways of thinking and acting.

The Evolution of Individualism

Radical individualism as a cultural more arose through centuries of cultural evolution in Western civilizations. This orientation gradually displaced more communally oriented perspectives. Current notions of individualism originated within some ancient Greek philosophies. I will briefly track how this ideology came to gradually dominate Western civilization, which shall in turn inform our responses to it.

Humans tend to seek out and function in small clusters of other humans (Cherlin, 1996; Kerr & Bowen, 1988). We develop long-term emotional and semantic ties in at least a few of these clusters which we call our family, clan, tribe, or community of some type (e.g., a religious community). While a personal definition of self develops, it simultaneously incorporates an individual "I" or "me" and a communal "we"; as Minuchin (1974) stated, the individual aspect of self does not exist apart from the communal sense. Relatedly, people who live in more community oriented and develop a clear sense of "we," are more likely to exhibit higher levels of caring acts and lower levels of interpersonal violence (Bonta, 1997).

Minuchin's (1974) view of self, however, represents a minority perspective in the Western Hemisphere north of the Equator. Instead, most notions of the self focus almost entirely on the individual; relational influences on the self are overlooked or treated as incidental (Cushman, 1992; Ho, 1985). The majority point of view, though, denotes lengthy cultural evolution in the West—it is no coincidence.

The headwaters of radical individualism are first apparent in some ancient Greek philosophies (Brennan, 1994). While these philosophies may not have been the only or even the first ones to extol the virtues of the individual, they are the sources of the stream that eventually engulfed Western civilizations. As early as the sixth century BC such philosophers as Democritus and Heraclitus advocated naturalistic, sensory explanations for life events, rather than spiritual explanations. Within two centuries, Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle built upon these ideas and added the view that the unique individual was the principal source for generating these naturalistic, sensory explanations. Other Greek philosophers elaborated upon these concepts, of course, but the individualistic stream was already in motion by the third century BC.

It takes time for ideas to filter through a culture. Thus, the daily lives of the vast majority of ancient Greeks did not reflect an individual orientation. In fact, most Greeks, like the other people of that era, probably defined who they were moreso by their family and community ties than as individuals (Starr, 1991). An ethnic map of the fifth century BC depicts the Greeks as merely one of many communal and tribal peoples who inhabit what is now called Europe (Pounds, 1973).

Overhead 1

The Greek and Italic (proto-Roman) people were among the ancient ones who built cities. Most of these people were agrarian, yet even the rural populace saw their political and cultural matters conducted through somewhat centralized civic bodies (Starr, 1991). Citizens of the cities then, as now, tended to organize their lives around the economy and/or the government, rather than around interpersonal relations of family or tribe. Nevertheless, the small proportion of the population that actually lived in towns or cities likely meant that the population as a whole still had some relational group (especially family) as a primary reference for defining themselves.

The residents of the rest of Europe who were not Greek or Italic lived in family or tribal groupings (Wells, 1984). My ancestors, for example, the broad group called the Celts, once inhabited the geographical area from Ireland to Turkey. Regional life-style differences existed, of course, yet generally they were small scale farmers and herders who looked to their extended family clans as their primary sources of self and claimed as their territory the immediate environs which provided food for them (Cunliffe, 1978; Laing & Laing, 1990). The Celts were also bellicose, albeit their wars tended to be small scale, local, and short-lived. I infer, then, that their communal way of life reflected or encouraged a relatively peaceful, cooperative existence (Bond & Smith, 1996; Bonta, 1997), which might have contributed to their downfall.

Life might have continued indefinitely for the Celts and other communally oriented clans except for the expansions of the Roman Empire. Early in their expansionism the Romans encountered concepts and practices of the Greeks. While the Romans were more renown for technical and organizational prowess, they admired the Greeks so much that they adopted numerous Greek philosophical and cultural views and spread then throughout what became a vast empire by the Third Century AD (Brennan, 1994).

Overhead 2

Along with their extensive road and communications system, military discipline, legal codes, and governmental structure, the Romans imported Greek ideas of individual significance apart from community relations and recognition for individual achievement. Such ideas took effect slowly and may have become somewhat occluded after the collapse of the Roman Empire (Laing & Laing, 1990). Yet they took root relatively quickly in the conquered territories and continued to grow for at least three reasons (Bond & Smith, 1996; Jones & Pennick, 1995; Starr, 1991). First, the Romans established local governments conducted by either Roman citizens or local administrators who supported the Romans, thus controlling the economy, food production, and at least prima facie allegiances to their way of life. Second, the conquered people admired the Romans; the Celts and other ethnic groups wanted to become more Roman so as to have the military and social successes their conquerors realized. Emulation appeared in such powerful forms as adopting some version of Latin as a language (e.g., much of English, French, and Spanish) and by adopting philosophies regarded as responsible for these successes. Third, by the Ninth Century AD, little of Europe was not Romanized to some degree; even the German clans who maintained their own language and philosophies, emulated the Romans somewhat (e.g., the term "Kaiser" for the supreme leader of Nineteenth Century Germany was their rendition of "Caesar"). The combined influence of these forces meant the Celts and other indigenous people were either assimilated, exterminated, or pushed to the outermost fringes of what had been the Roman Empire (Pound, 1973; Starr, 1991), hence their more communal ways of living gradually faded.

Overhead 3

The early Twelfth Century saw little of the Celts or other communal clans still in existence as mainline cultures. Remnants remained in Ireland, Scotland, and Wales, but even those distal places would not remain wholly Celtic. Within the next 500 years the Romanized England would grow to exert a high degree of control and influence over these regions, as the Romans once did over England (Starr, 1991). Communal relations and definition of self in the context of one's clan would remain, albeit subverted to the type of Roman style nationalism that led Scotland to unsuccessfully fight for its independence from England and Ireland to successfully fight for it.

Overhead 4

Philosophies may function overtly or covertly. The historical notion of philosophy in the Western Hemisphere is overt discourse and written word. Little is said of its covert functions and yet this form may have even more long-term influence than the overt form, as the covert form is relatively shielded from critical review and reconsideration (BBSTF, 1996). The covert form may become institutionalized, accepted by the general populace at a presuppositional level such that members of a culture believe that is how the world operates simply because that is what they learned (Holmes, 1983). Such beliefs become unquestioned and "instinctive" to the point that parents, educators, and other purveyors of enculturation pass them on to successive generations (Kerr & Bowen, 1988).

Progressive presuppositional transmission of Greek philosophies to generations of Western civilizations is the probable mechanism for the advent of radical individualism. The Greco-Roman influence over European cultures was compounded by the same Greek philosophies infiltrating the belief systems of the earliest Christian theologians that informed the secular Romans (Pinnock, Rice, Sanders, Hasker, & Basinger, 1994). The Roman Empire eventually endorsed Christianity as its official religion. Early missionaries, in the name of Rome and the church, set out to convert the heathen to Christianity (Starr, 1991). Thus, people living in a Romanized society and embracing a religion which endorsed many of the same philosophical principles were thoroughly immersed in the ideas that fostered individualism.

I could continue to trace how the emphasis on individualism flowered in the European Renaissance, found expression in a Cartesian interpretation of science, was supported by the Industrial Revolution (Brennan, 1994; Cushman, 1992), and possibly fostered self-selection of many early immigrants to the United States. By the time these landmark periods of Western civilizations occurred, though, the predilection for radical individualism was already set. What remained were variations on that theme.

Bases for Dialogue

A potent expression of individualism was through the sciences. Physical and social sciences embodied the essence of individualism for centuries. Naturalistic determinism, reductionism, and insistence on parametric research designs and statistics exemplified how an individualistic orientation had become institutionalized. Scientists were accountable to themselves and their funders; caring how science affected local and global communities was moot. Further, successive generations of students were inculcated into individualism, in part, through learning "the scientific method," which was presented as the only expression of scientific philosophy. Here too, individualism operated on a presuppositional level.

Ironically, those same sciences may now afford constructive venues for exploring reconnections between individual and community. In the early 1960s, Kuhn (1970) heralded a paradigm shift in science, wherein the traditional (individualistic) way of conducting science was but one way to regard the world. Since then, viable alternatives have emerged.

One alternative, natural systems theory, emerged from social sciences about the time Kuhn first published his views. Bowen (Kerr & Bowen, 1988) was an early articulator of natural systems. Bowen's decades of family research convinced him that individual, family, and societal functions were inextricably and reciprocally linked to each other. Individual, family, and society represented overlapping dynamic relational systems each of which provided essential context for understanding the others.

Applications of natural systems theory noticeably differ from the traditional individual applications. Most of the Western Hemisphere models and theories of psychotherapy regard an individual as the focus of therapy. Hence, the therapist orients the process to one client, with little consideration of the client's relational networks and other contextual experiences (e.g., socioeconomic factors). Natural systems applications, however, regard clients' relational networks and other contextual experiences as the focus of therapy (Guttman, 1991; Kerr & Bowen, 1988). Individual development is part of systemic development, not the sole focus.

A second alternative is complexity theory, which recently emerged out of physics and economics. Similar to Bowen, complexity theory suggests that natural systems operate through tightly reciprocal relations between individual parts of overlapping systems. In addition, ordered and disordered dynamics occur simultaneously in these systems. Complexity exists between order and chaos, which makes natural events unpredictable in a linear, cause-effect sense yet predictable tendencies and self-organization also occur (Mainzer, 1994; Waldrop, 1992).

Possible applications of complexity theory are more difficult, as the theory is quite new. Nevertheless, implications may be profound. For instance, when clients express distress over disorder in their lives, therapists seek to alleviate the discomforts. Complexity theory, however, suggests that disorder, the chaos clients may feel, is an important part of growth to integrate into one's life rather than attempting to numb or excise it. Similarly, some families that enter therapy are experiencing destabilizing oscillations which are natural occurrences in family life cycles. Interventions that interrupted these oscillations, instead of helping families function within the oscillations, might be a disservice.

Hopefully, scientific and epistemological models such as natural systems and complexity will provide a dialogical link between East and West, between community and individual orientations. Hopefully, too, this linkage will foster a relearning of the vitality of community in Western Hemisphere civilizations. As we relearn what community means, may we then come to express caring more through community channels.

References

Atkinson, D.R. (1983). Ethnic similarity in counseling psychology: A review of research. *The Counseling Psychologist, 11(3),* 79-92.

Basic Behavioral Science Task Force (1996). Basic behavioral science research for mental health Thought and communication. *American Psychologist, 51,* 181-189.

Bond, R., & Smith, P.B. (1996). Culture and conformity: A meta-analysis of studies using Asch's (1952b, 1956) Line Judgment Task. *Psychological Bulletin, 119,* 111-137.

Bonta, B.D. (1997). Cooperation and competition in peaceful societies. *Psychological Bulletin, 121,* 299-320.

Brennan, J.F. (1994). *History and systems of psychology* (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bryson, S., & Cody, J. (1973). Relationship of race and level of understanding between counseling and client. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 20,* 495-498.

Cherlin, A.J. (1996). *Public and private families.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Cunliffe, B. (1978). *Iron age communities in Britain* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Cushman, P. (1992). Psychotherapy to 1992: A historically situated interpretation. In D. K. Freedheim (Ed.). *History of psychotherapy: A century of change.* Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Guttman, H.A. (1991). Systems theory, cybernetics, and epistemology. In A.S. Gurman & D.P. Kniskern (Eds.). *Handbook of family therapy* (Vol. 2). New York: Brunner/Mazel.

Ho, D.Y.F. (1985). Cultural values and professional issues in clinical psychology: Implications from the Hong Kong experience. *American Psychologist, 40,* 1212-1218.

Holmes, A.F. (1983). *Contours of a world view.* Grand Rapids, MI: William B. Eerdmans.

Jones, P., & Pennick, N. (1995). *A history of pagan Europe.* London: Routledge.

Kerr, M., & Bowen, M. (1988). *Family evaluation.* New York: Norton.

Kuhn, T.S. (1970). *The structure of scientific revolutions* (2nd ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago.

Laing, L., & Laing, J. (1990). *Celtic Britain and Ireland, AD 200-800.* New York: St. Martin's.

Mainzer, K. (1994). *Thinking in complexity.* Berlin: Springer-Verlag.

Mays, V.M., Rubin, J., Sabourin, M., & Walker, L. (1996). Moving toward a global psychology: Changing theories and practice to meet the needs of a changing world. *American Psychologist, 51,* 485-487.

Minuchin, S. (1974). *Families and family therapy.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University.

Pinnock, C., Rice, R., Sanders, J., Hasker, W., & Basinger, D. (1994). *The openness of God.* Downers Grove, IL: InterVarsity.

Pounds, N.J.G. (1973). *An historical geography of Europe: 450 B.C.-A.D. 1330.* London: Cambridge University.

Starr, C.G. (1991). *A history of the ancient world.* Oxford: Oxford University.

Waldrop, M.M. (1992). *Complexity: The emerging science at the edge of order and chaos.* New York: Simon & Schuster.

Wells, P.S. (1984). *Farms, villages, and cities: Commerce and urban origins in late prehistoric Europe.* Ithaca, NY: Cornell University.

The Countermeasures to the Psychological Pressure of Children in the Technological Age: How to Raise the level of Psychological Soundness in the Family

CaoZiFang WangYi
Department of Educational Leadship,
Shanghai Normal University

The 21st century will witness a high development in science and technology and in economy. In order to survive and develop, people will inevitably face an even keener competition ,which will in crease the psychological pressure among people and decrease their level of psychological soundness .This problem has become even more serious among children who are growing rapidly in physique and mind .So how to improve children's psychological soundness in the family was become a problem much concerned in the society.

The article lays emphasis on how to raise the level of Children's psychological soundness .It analyses the present conditions of children's psychology and makes corresponding counter measures how to improve Parents' own psychological soundness and how to help children improve their psychological soundness.

According to WHO, A Healthy person should not only be sound in body,but also be sound in physiology and psychology as will as be adaptable in society .¡±There is no doubt that psychological soundness is important in modern life. People have realized that only psychological lie sound people can compete with others in the society,and only psychologically sound people are able to win the competition. More and more people have also come to the realization that we should cultivate children's psychological qualities from childhood so as to melt them naturally into society later in life. Indeed, it's beneficial to raise the level of children's psychological soundness since it complies with the development of modern society. And it's also a new subject for educators.

When the topic raising the level of children's psychological soundness¡±just put forward, many people questioned: "Is it possible for adolescents and infants to develop psychological problems?", But action speaks louder than words.Investigations show many childern, from infants to middle school students,present psychological problems in varying degrees.An investigation in a key middle school in Shanghai shows 29.3% students felt " vexed and depressed ", because of the frustrations in studies and work and the relationship with classmates 32.6% students felt "estranged from heir parents" and felt lonely because their parents can't understand and support them.Another investigation in 1990 among 4693 students from 34 middle schools in Nanjing indicates 15.7% students had problems in characters,and 0.9% of them had serious problems. In JinLing middle school there has been one or two students who are unable to sit in for the college entrance examination each year because of psychological problem. Since 1984. In the recent years, children in primary schools,some even in kindergartens are found to be unadapted,overanxious ,obstinate and distracted. So it is not imaginary to think that children have psychological problems .It's necessary to prevent and correct these problems.

Much to our relief, the educators have got some achievement through sustained efforts and exploration in this field .Take Shanghai as an example,the educational institutions at all levels have put protection of psychological soundness of children into agenda . School in Shanghai have gradually introduced psychological guidance, psychological consultation into school campuses. Some provide psychological lectures every week ,and some have established the room for psychological consultation.More and more educators have realized only by improving the psychological quantity of students can we improve the teaching efficiency ,build up the sound personality and cultivate constructors who can meet the requirement of our age.

However, improving children's psychological soundness is not only the responsibility of educators,family should also take the responsibility. When psychological consultation has become popular in school ,we should draw our attention to family and put it's function into full play. As we know,family is a cell of society. It is a component of society and it reflects and affects the function of society. Each member of the society should first be a member of family and then a member of the society .Family, a center of actions, has become even more important in modern age,especially in metropolitan cities. The relationship between parents and children was become far closer than ever before because of the size of family and single child policy .In other words ,children are more attached to their parents in feeling .But if parents show their love to children only in the respect of clothing,food,living conditions,that's far from enough .Although children need their care in the material life and studies,they need more in spirit comfort and psychological feedback.

To improve children's psychological soundness in family, we should first change parents' ideas, some parents doubt that children have psychological problems, espeically these who have children in kinder gartens. They only pay attention to the early education of their children,but neglect their psychological problems. They think psychological soundness is a topic for adults.Some parents think to be concerned with children's psychological soundness is to know everything their Children are thinking about and then to correct them according to their own will .Some others think Love means offering everything selflessly and fully satisfying children's needs - all these ideas are wrong .With the development of science and technology,material life has become richer and richer and competition more and more fierce. There is a tendency of precariousness in physiology and psychology of children,which always results in unbalance between physiological growth and adaptability has become a contradition,which causes various psychological problems, such as anxiety, loneliness, fear, indifference. So parents should pay more attention to the psychological soundness of children and should spend time acquiring the knowledge in this respect.A qualified parent should know his child.It doesn't mean to know the life style of his child,but to know his character,temper and hobbies,as well as to notice his changes in emotions to see whether they comply with his age.It requires patents to be equipped with some knowledge of psychology and can identify the psychology of each age level.Today's parents are cultivating constructors of the next century.So they must be wise and take it as their target to improve the psychological soundness of children in the early stage of life.Therefore we feel obliged to introduce briefly to parents what are sound psychological qualities.Generally spending,sound psychology means:better adaptation to circumstance, sound personality without defects,stability in feelings and emotions, normal intelligence, strong mindedness, and harmonious behaviors certain response to speed, psychology complying with ages sober awareness, concentrated mind and complete cognition.

Secondly,we should insist that parents improve their psychological soundness, It's have to imagine that a parent instable in personality can cultivate his child sound in psychology.In children's eyes, parents mean norms and values.So they often imitate their patents' words and behaviors.Parents should overcome their own psychological problems.If they have some resentments which can hardly be rid of for the moment, they must try their best to balance or adjust their psychology and show optimism and understanding before children.Children's minds are fragile and sensitive. They will feel safe and trustful in the peaceful state of their parents and will feel anxious and helpless if their parents are resentful and bitter in feeling. So parents should create a warm and harmonious atmosphere for their children at home.But some parents, regardless of the presence of their children,will get their resentment of their chests and thus harm the feeling of their children. They not only involve their children into something unpleasant, but also cast indifference and doubt into their minds.In modern society,divorce was become the solution to solve the emotional problems.Many Chinese people will no longer keep the broken marriages to save their faces.But as parents, they should remember that they have the responsibility to cultivate their children while pursuing their personal happiness and develpment. To create an affectionate and trustful environment is beneficial to the psychological soundness of children.

Now we'll talk about how to help children improve their own psychological soundness.After years of research and practrce, we are going to put forward some suggestions. First, parents should purposely cultivate children'sability of independance. Because of the improving of our living standard and one-child policy, children have become the center of the family.Under great care, they become more dependent on others,unable to take care of themselves in life.But some parents disregard the problem and think as long as their children study hard and get good results, it doesn't matter if they are unable to do housework. But if they are unable to do some basic things for their existence,how can they have the ability to compete with others in society ? So parents should correct this tendering of biased education, help their children to learn basic things in life and ask them to do some housework according to their ages. When they are still babies, parents can teach them how to wash their handkerchieves, put toys in order. If there good habits continue, children will be completely independent after they graduate from middle school. This kind of education, not only lay solid foundation for their future competition, but also cultivate their confidence in life as well as independence.

To cultivate children's independence, we should cultivate their independent awareness besides training their ability to manage their own life. A dependent child is frigate,unable to experience frustratives and setbacks.Parents should cultivate children's independent thinking and ask them to solve their own problems. Meanwhile they should end their children's dependence on parents, letting them know that they should live the life themselves and no one can live for them.Parents can give them help when they are in need,but they should work hard for their own future. Parents can purposely leave some problems for children to solve.After frustrations, children's psychological endurance will improve and they will become really mature.

Secondly, parents should respect children's independence and pay attention to the emotional exchange among children.They should not scold their children.Severe rebukes will result in depression and inferiority complex of children. Parents should create a democratic and a tolerable atmosphere in the family, allow children to express their own ideas and speak their minds.A good understanding with children is much better than a severe rebuke. If parents want to have a good understanding with children, they should follow the following principles: 1. The principle of understanding:Parents should experience children's inner feelings in order to know their motive of behavior. 2. The principle of trust. Trust expresses parents love in a most pertinent way. Because of trust, children can tell everything to their parents without reserve. Because of trust, children will feel safe, warm and confident.Because of trust, children can experience parents'deep love. While parents,because of trust, will understand and accept their mistakes and troubles, and help them change and grow with confidence. 3. The principle of encouragement. Psychologists believe that encouragement is better than punishment. The encouragement from parents will make children more confident and thus develop their potentials. 4. The principle of patience. It's often said¡°No difficult is insurmountable if one sets his mind on it. It takes ten years to grow trees, but a hundred to rear people. So to improve children's psychological soundness is a long time job.

Thirdly, parents should have close contact with school in order to know children's psychological changes. In the family, parents should ask to use some methods used in psychological consultation, such as catharsis and listening,while provide children with an outlet for their emotions and troubles. Then parents can help them find out the crux of their problems. The meaning of catharsis is to enforce their will of self-analysis and to set up the confidence in overcoming difficulties.

Our goal is to cultivate children into psychologically sound constructors.We'll make great efforts to achieve the goal.We are confident to see that young people of 21st century will be much stronger than ever. We can expect that the future generation with modern ideas will be more open-minded, more understanding and they will represent a psychologically sound future.

Finding Common Ground Between Adolescent Girls and Their Mothers: Insights From a Mother-Daughter Group

J. Matthew Carlson
Woodside Elementary School, Woodside, CA

Adolescence is a challenging period for mothers and daughters. For girls, adolescence is an accelerated time of physical, emotional, intellectual, and social development and a time of self-discovery when new ways of thinking, feeling, and behaving are continually under adjustment. Adolescents are greatly impacted and influenced by both peers and the greater societal culture. Peers are one of the strongest agents of support and approval during the adolescent years. Popularity, friendships, self-worth, acceptance, and interests are all heavily determined by peer expectation and standards. These standards, however, are increasingly being determined and developed by the growing influence of media and technology. As the mass media grows in size and scope, their messages and standards create the social context, expectations, and perceptions of adolescent girls. In this case, aspects of adult culture are being pushed upon adolescent girls "hurrying" them into adult culture from childhood. Girls are being confronted and forced to cope with an adult agenda before they are developmentally prepared. Mothers observing their daughters draw from their past experiences of what it felt to be an adolescent and their outside perceptions of what it means to an adolescent in the 1990's. Mothers want to be a source of guidance and support but this can be a frustrating endeavor. Adolescents seem to have a distinct culture in which friendships, school, interests, and fads are paramount. Mothers can have a difficult time understanding and communicating on these topics with an authority that is respect by adolescents. This paper will provide an overview of the developmental issues of adolescent girls and present an adolescent mother-daughter intervention group. The group is titled "Femme Vitale", with the implied suggestion that it promotes strong, alive girls and women. The main goal of this group is for the creation and understanding of a "common language" in which mothers and daughters can discuss the changing socio-cultural world of adolescent girls to augment healthy development.

The recognition of adolescence as a distinct and critical developmental period in the human life cycle is a relatively recent event. Whereas gender differences, gender appropriate behavior, and gender roles among children and adults seem to be decreasing in American society, these differences and roles are more intensified during adolescence (Muuss, 1990). During this time, social pressure is exerted to act in gender-appropriate ways with sex-role stereotypes, especially constructions of the ideal image of the opposite sex, reaching their height. Adolescence is a difference experience for boys and girls. According to the gender intensification hypothesis of Hill and Lynch (1983), differential socialization efforts and distinct gender expectations accelerate with the onset of puberty. Social pressures demand that girls be feminine and attractive, become more self-conscious, have difficulty maintaining self-esteem, and are under intense pressure to abandon achievement striving, aggressive competitiveness, tomboyishness, and athletic accomplishments. Girls become unwilling to admit they every act like boys and visa-versa. Girls are expected to forego a plethora of enjoyable and successful behaviors and attitudes that are taught in childhood, valued in adulthood, yet unaccepted during adolescence. Research findings note that girls experience greater distress than boys during early adolescence and are twice as likely to be depressed. Depression in girls is linked to negative feelings about their body and appearance. Poor body image and eating disorders are much more prevalent in girls than in boys. Whereas there are many physical changes taking place, it is culture, not biology, that is the root of the problem for most girls (Debold, 1995).

Erik Erikson's (1968) theory of development views adolescence as a distinct stage in the life cycle. Erikson believed the task for adolescents before becoming an adults is to incorporate new drives and social demands into a fully integrated and healthy personality. The result of this integration is the formation of a personal identity. Identity is a pattern of beliefs about the self that adolescents construct to reconcile the many ways they are like other people with the many ways they are different. Erikson viewed adolescence as a crisis between identity formation and identity confusion. Formation of identity begins in early adolescence by experimenting and learning about the social world and how one fits into the surroundings. Erikson saw four tasks leading to successful identity formation. Adolescents must rework establishing trust both personally and socially with peers. This initially requires establishing trust with friends of the same sex before crossing over to members of the opposite sex. In the larger social world, adolescents begin to attach to political causes and ideologies. Adolescents must establish autonomy in order to choose their own paths and decisions that are independent of their parents. Setting personal goals for what one might become instead of settling for limits around you incorporate the idea of taking initiative. This includes the formation of new dreams and goals of greatness. Finally, adolescents must understand industry and develop the independence to go past limits set by teachers and parents to become self-motivated to set personal goals and high expectations.

To form a healthy identity, cognition, maturation, and social expectations all come together and synthesize into a new identification. The is a process that begins before high school and increases steadily through the college years. During this integration, American girls often experience ambivalence and confusion in confronting the dilemmas that are inherent in cultural expectations and standard roles they see (Archer, 1985). As technology has helped push along rapid social and cultural change, many future roles and expectations are tentative and unclear to adolescent girls. Thus girls today engage in identity development seeking their own internal perception of roles, values, beliefs, and goals without the benefit of stable or consistent societal guidelines. This process of seeking, a psychological moratorium, is facilitated by active questioning, experiencing, searching, and experimenting with personal, social, and vocational roles (Muuss, 1990). A supportive mother can assist in this exploration by providing a safe environment for helpful feedback and as an outlet to discuss the changing social world. Femme Vitale looks to address identity formation and support adolescent girls in this moratorium. This group uses mothers and adolescent girls as guides for addressing unclear ideas and as a sounding board for raising questions about social expectations.

It is suggested that conflicts adolescents have with parents may be over-exaggerated (Vernon & Al-Mabuk, 1995). While this may be true, most adolescents resist having their limits and realities drawn by their parents (Cole & Cole, 1993). Whereas conflict may be overstated, the quest for autonomy in adolescence leads to increased emotional distance between teens and parents and a reorganization in family relationships. In girls, it is suggested that in first few months after menarche, both parents look to increase control which tend to result in disagreements between mothers and daughters. After one year, this seems to decrease (Hill, 1988). Adolescent girls have different relationships with their mother and father possibly due to different gender status within the family. Adolescents tend to exert more independence in interactions with their mothers with the understanding that mothers will not challenge them (Hill, 1988). While girls may challenge their mothers more, girls tend to have a closer, more intimate relationship with their mothers. Girls talk to their mothers about more personal topics, ask for practical advice, and look to have their feelings and impressions validated (Cole & Cole, 1993). While this may help facilitate the process of achieving autonomy, it also makes the process emotionally more difficult for both when separation occurs. This describes the true dilemma of early adolescence for girls, namely that they must balance two agendas, one of dependence and past reliance on parents and the other of developing independence.

During adolescence, girls turn to peers for help and advice instead of their parents. Parents and peers have different spheres of influence. Instead of conceptualizing peers and parents competing for influence, it is better to understand how they differ (Kandel, 1986). Girls and parents tend to agree on moral issues like marriage and religion, but differ on ideas of sex, drug use, music, and appearance. Girls chose peers who share their opinions on these topics. As girls become more distant from parents, they are more likely to turn to peers for advice about how to conduct themselves (Brown, 1990). Instead of attributing this split in information seeking to the break down of parent-child relations, a more plausible explanation is that adolescent girls and parents exist in different worlds with distinct communication and understanding. Adolescent girls still consult and spend time with their parents, yet the activities in the two contexts are so different they can be seen as "contrasting social worlds" (Montemayor, 1982). Yet despite the plausibility of a discontinuous, self-contained, and separate youth culture, research points to some continuity between the culture of adolescents and that of parents (Brown, 1990; Collins, 1990). There are agreements and understanding between the generations about many issues, yet the individual misperception of differences seem to be paramount and overwhelm these facts. There are differing attractions and interests of each group, yet underlying these differences are similarities. Femme Vitale attempts to address the misperceptions of differences and instead look for the areas of common ground.

Central to adolescent girls is the premium placed on friendships among peers. Girls need close friendships to feel secure. Friendships are based on common interests, similarity of values, loyalty, attitudes, and intimacy. Close friendships are ones that incorporate a deeper understanding between girls. This is important because it is in the context of intimate, self-disclosing conversations with close friends that girls begin to define themselves and explore identities. There is a large difference between self-disclosures of middle childhood and adolescence (Parker & Gottman, 1989). In these conversations, girls require loyalty, trust, and a supportive person to explore sexuality and social beliefs. Girls want their friends to confide about their social relationships with boys and others to deepen their understanding of the social world. Adolescent girl friendships work similar to attachment in infancy. During infancy babies engage in social referencing by looking to mothers as a secure base to evaluate what is happening; during adolescence, girls use their friends as a secure base to confront anxiety and uncertain situations (Cole & Cole, 1993). Thus a type of "groupthink" is employed to evaluate what can be done in social situations.

The role of parents, friends, and gender differences are all combined in a girls self-concept and self-esteem. Self-concept and self-esteem are essential factors for adolescent girls. Self-concept reflects cognitive, physical, and social self-worth. In a time when so much is happening in and around adolescent girls, balancing these domains and concepts becomes difficult. Girls begin to tailor their thoughts, behavior, and self-concept to each particular context. Thus the concept of being a different person depending on the situation becomes clear, the idea of multiple selves is born. How girls view themselves and feel about themselves is captured in one's self-esteem. While most girls think well of themselves in middle childhood, the majority of girls suffer a severe decline in self-esteem by the age of 12 or early adolescence (American Association of University Women, 1991). Self-esteem in girls is often low in early adolescence and strengthens as girls get older. This drop can be attributed to dissonance that is generated by becoming an women in America. Girls see that power is not equal between women and men, yet they are taught that true democracy, justice, and equality are the realities of American life. Girls are led to infer that economic and social power is due to intrinsic merit. For girls to accept this, they must regard themselves as inferior. Femme Vitale addresses issues of in-equality and looks to create empowerment and feelings of entitled to equality. The group focuses on self-esteem and self-concept by pushing each members constructed limits of themselves and looking beyond those limits.

Overview of Femme Vitale

In adolescence, moving from "young girl" to "young woman" means meeting new unique demands. This change involves coming to terms with a culture that both idealizes and exploits the sexuality of young women while assigning them clearly evident lesser roles than their male counterparts. To address the development of young women, Femme Vitale was created at Woodside School by the school counselor and a middle school teacher. Femme Vitale is an ongoing discussion group for mothers and their junior high daughters to discuss what it means to be an adolescent girl in American culture. Femme Vitale met twice a month for up to two hours per meeting. The group operates with the understanding that confidentially of information will build future trust between group members. Information the group covers is open for discussion, but the content between group members stays within the group.

The underlying principle of Femme Vitale is that adolescent culture can be difficult for girls unless they have the skills, inner strength, and guidance to filter through the various conflicting and confusing messages. Mothers have a difficult time assisting in this process because they may not be aware of what girls are attracted to, but also because girls may perceive that their mothers will not understand them. Life is different for teenagers today compared to the lives of their mothers. To bridge this gap, Femme Vitale is a "girl-focused" group, meaning that issues presented correspond to the cultural and social realities of adolescent girls of today. Thus we talk about the magazines, music, videos, language, expectations, and worries that the adolescent girls bring to each meeting. Girls are then free to discuss what they already know instead of vague topics. By bringing mothers into this different world they can glimpse and gain a better understanding of what their daughters experience, view each day, and think about. Therefore, girls and mothers in Femme Vitale are on equal ground in their ability to participate but the topics begin from a girl's point of view. The purpose of this is to learn about girls of today, but mothers should share their past experiences and stories to contrast differences between the generations and find similarities. By better understanding girls and their world mothers and daughters can establish common ground for future communication and learn to speak a common language. By bridging perceive differences and eliminating misunderstanding, mothers and daughters can open new roads of communication.

The topics covered in Femme Vitale can be controversial and subjects mothers and daughters may not have discussed together. By using the group as a safe discussion zone, the taboo of some subjects can be eliminated and future discussion with mothers and daughters might be easier. In a group environment, participants are more likely to talk about controversial subjects if the facilitor introduces and presents the topics. Topics covered and short explanations:

- Friendships and Popularity: Friendships are one most important aspects of a girl's life. The concept of assertiveness and honesty in friendships is key to forming meaningful friendships and relationships in the future.
- Body Image: Show Slim Hopes (Kilbourne, 1995) video and discuss body image in advertising. The central question is how can this affect each person?
- Perception and Conflict: Give a survey on concerns and worries of adolescent girls as perceived by mothers and daughters. Compare differences between mothers and their daughters. Why are their different perceptions between the generations on concerns? The idea of perception is presented as a feature in most conflict between parents and adolescents.
- Self Defense: Self-defense and confidence building workshop on how to cope with physical and verbal harassment. Contracted outside organization to lead full-force self-defense portion.
- Career Issues for Girls: What are your career dreams? Compare daughter's vision with their mother's opinion of what their daughters can do. Used the Self-Directed Search (Holland, 1989) to facilitate career planning.
- Health and Wellness for Girls: Stress reduction and relaxation ideas to maintain health were practiced. The role of diet and exercise in maintaining a healthy balance is presented.
- Cognitive Errors: What are the cognitive faulty beliefs of adolescent girls? Ideas were presented and refuted in a group discussion.
- Who Defines Sexuality?: Show Dreamworlds 2 (Jhally, 1995) and discuss how mass media and music videos influence how sexuality is defined by American culture.
- Who Are You (Self-Image)? Self-knowledge exercises were presented for small groups. Similiarities and differences between people were discussed. Each participant made a collage from magazines to represent who they are.
- Girls and Schools?: Sexism in education was discussed. Is your school sexist? How is intruction different for boys and girls.

Homework exercises are used with each subject. Each assignment is a group project for both mother and daughter. It is expected that the homework will be completed outside of the group, hopefully an during an established mother/daughter time. Each homework assignment builds on the discussed topic but the underlying message is self-knowledge and self-esteem building. Femme Vitale is a preventive group for adolescent girls. Many of the topics discussed are subjects most women are introduced to in the college years. Yet the information is too late to impact adolescence and experiences in American high schools. It is the contention that previous exposure, knowledge, discussion, and decisions about the topics of Femme Vitale provide skills and reflections before girls come into contact with these ideas in the larger social world. Organized and honest discussion about adolescence when it is occurring is more beneficial that reflecting about it later in life.

References

American Association of University Women. (1991). *How schools shortchange girls.* New York: Marlow & Company.

Archer, S.L. (1985). Identity and the choice of social roles. In A.S. Waterman (Ed.), *Identity in adolescence: Process and contents (New directions in child development, No.30)* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Brown, B.B. (1990). Peer groups and peer cultures. In S.S. Feldman & G.R. Elliot (Eds.). *At the threshold: The developing adolescent.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Cole, M. & Cole, S.R. (1993). *The development of children* (2nd edition). New York: W.H. Freeman & Company.

Debold, E. (1995). Helping girls survive the middle grades. *Principal, Jan., 22-24.*

Erikson, E. (1968). *Identity and youth in crisis.* New York: Norton.

Hill, J.P. & Lynch, M.E. (1983). The intensification of gender-related role expectations during early adolescence. In J. Brooks-Gunn & A.C. Peterson (Eds.) *Girls at puberty.* (pp. 201-228). New York: Plenum.

Hill, J.P. (1988). Adapting to menarche: Familial control and conflict. In M.R. Gunner & W.A. Collins (Eds.). *Development during transition to adolescence. Minnesota Symposium on Child Psychology.* (Vol.21). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Holland, J. (1989). *The self-directed search.* Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc.

Jhally, S. (1995). *Dreamworlds 2.* Northampton, MA: Media Education Foundation.

Kandel, D.B. (1986). Process of peer influences in adolescence. In R.K. Silbereisen, K. Eyferth, & G. Rudinger (Eds.), *Development as action in context: Problem behavior and normal youth development.* Berlin: Springer-Verlag.

Kilbourne, J. (1995). *Slim hopes.* Northampton, MA: Media Education Foundation.

Montemayor, R. (1982). The relationship between parent-adolescent conflict and the amount of time adolescents spend alone with their parents and peers. *Child Development, 53,* 1512-1219.

Muuss, R.E. (1990). *Adolescent behavior and society (4th edition.).* New York: McGraw Hill.

Parker, J. G. & Gottman, J.M. (1989). Social and emotional development in a relational context: friendship interactions from early childhood to adolescence. In T.J. Berndt & G.W. Ladd (Eds.), *Peer relationships in child development.* New York: Wiley.

Vernon, A. & Al-Mabuk R.H. (1995). *What growing up is all about.* Champaign, IL: Research Press.

School Counselors, Teachers, and Parents: Using Play Techniques To Support Children's Development

Dorothy Tysse Breen, Ph.D. is an Associate Professor of Counselor Education at the University of Maine. Anne Geroski, Ed.D. is an Assistant Professor of Counselor Education at the University of Vermont.

School counselors are specialists who works with children to foster their personal, social, and academic growth (Myrick, 1993). Typically counselors in schools provide direct and indirect services including individual and small group counseling, large group classroom guidance, consultation with teachers and parents, special projects, and coordination of other guidance services (Myrick, 1993).

Many counselors in elementary schools use play techniques in their interventions with children to promote personal, social, and academic development (Allan & Brown, 1993; Barlow, Strother, & Landreth, 1986; Campbell, 1993; Fall, 1994; Kottman & Johnson, 1993; Landreth, 1991; Miles, 1993; Muro and Kottman, 1995; Myrick & Myrick, 1993; Stiles & Kottman; 1990; Woytowich, 1994). Without a theoretical rationale for their use, play techniques are often misunderstood when they are used by counselors in schools (Landreth, 1991; Muro & Kottman, 1995). In fact, Muro and Kottman (1995) caution that school counselors make sure to have the support of their building administrator when using play techniques and suggest that school counselors provide a rationale and overview of these techniques to assure their support.

In this article, we use Kaufman's (1989) model of interpersonal needs as a theoretical framework to support the use of play techniques by school counselors. We also extend this framework to validate classroom teachers and parents using play techniques as they foster the development of children.

Kaufman's Interpersonal Needs

According to Kaufman (1989), all children are born with basic interpersonal needs. These include the need for relationships with other people, the need for touching and holding, the need for identification (belonging and feeling "one" with others), the need for differentiation (being different and separate from others), the need to nurture (caring for and helping other people), the need for affirmation (feeling worthwhile, valued, and admired), and the need for power in relationships and in life in general (Kaufman, 1989; Kaufman & Raphael, 1990).

Kaufman (1989) interweaves issues of shame with themes of power with these primary needs. He believes that during childhood the interpersonal needs become associated with positive or negative affect, which in turn influences interpersonal relationships later in life. For example, interpersonal needs that are fused with positive affect enable the child, and later the adult, to form healthy interpersonal relationships. School counselors have opportunities to help children fuse interpersonal needs with positive affect. Interpersonal needs that are fused with negative affect such as shame, lead to later difficulties in relationships with others and cause the individual to carry disruptive shame binds into adulthood relationships. School counselors have opportunities to enable children who have interpersonal needs fused with negative affect, to re-experience their interpersonal needs in association with positive affect.

Play Techniques for Counseling Children

Play is the natural mode of expression and exploration for children. It is a form of language with which children learn to communicate and master their developmental needs by learning about themselves and the world around them (Ginot, 1961; Hughes, 1991; Landreth, 1987). Using play techniques in counseling provides children with the opportunity to "play out" their feelings and to "play out" their life situations in order to achieve mastery of their developmental needs (Axline, 1947; Landreth, 1993).

Child centered play techniques assume that children have an inner drive toward maturity, independence, and self-direction. The focus of this type of intervention is on establishing a security zone for the child to explore him or herself in relation to the counselor (Landreth, 1993). It is through these interactions that interpersonal skills are learned and corrective experiences occur. The directive approach is also centered on the relationship between the child and the counselor, however, the counselor assumes a more active role in making interpretations of the play and linking the play to the child's real life experiences (Oaklander, 1989; Schafer, 1985).

Use of Play Techniques by School Counselors, Teachers, and Parents

In the remainder of this article we offer suggestions for how school counselors can use play techniques to influence children's growth in each of Kaufman's (1989) interpersonal needs. School counselors help to reinforce the acquisition of developmental skills by collaborating with teachers and parents. This may require school counselors to model how to address interpersonal needs as teachers and parents engage in play with children in the classroom and at home. School counselors, teachers, and parents can work as a system to facilitate developmental growth in children.

Need for Relationship

Children feel secure knowing they are genuinely wanted. Mutual interest and enjoyment conveys to children that the relationship is genuine and valued.

Counselors. Counselors build a safe, accepting, non judgmental relationship with children through child centered play. For example, counselors and children can mutually enjoy using clay. Children will feel connected because the counselors are engaging in the same activity and they will feel accepted because there are no right or wrong ways to manipulate clay.

Teachers. Counselors model acceptance and listening skills in the classroom. Counselors support teachers in as they engage in mutually enjoyable classroom play or expressive activities which foster creativity and acceptance. These may include writing, drawing, manipulating clay, and exploring in a sand tray. Counselors acknowledge and validate teachers' efforts in the classroom to build safe, accepting relationships with children.

Parents. Counselors provide parent training classes to validate parents' efforts to form accepting non judgmental relationships with their children. Counselors teach concepts of acceptance, limits, and choices to support parents as they foster accepting relationships within boundaries. Counselors model engaging in play with children.

Need for Touching and Holding

Touching and holding are principal ways of expressing affection. Expression of affection communicates comfort, protection, and security.

Counselors. Counselors provide a safe, accepting environment for group play involving touch. Children play active games, like Twister, which involve physical contact, or they participate in group drawings where they may rub elbows while reaching across the paper. Children develop their sense of touch by manipulating clay, running their fingers through a sand tray, or cuddling with a stuffed teddy bear.

Teachers. Counselors model appropriate touching in the classroom. For example, teachers provide opportunities for touching when they sit next to children on the floor in a reading area or when they have art projects like finger or foot painting.

Parents. Counselors provide parent training classes to validate parents' efforts to touch and hold their children. Counselors encourage parents to make time to hug their children, to sit next to them while reading a story, and to engage in activities which may involve touching like hiking, swimming, fishing, and walking.

Need for Identification

Identification establishes a sense of belonging, rootedness, and connectedness. When children can identify, they can emulate those they admire and feel a sense of belonging. Fulfillment of this need enhances children's sense of inner power and transmission of values.

Counselors. Counselors engage in play activities with children as a means of self-disclosure. They may play a game like the Ungame, for example. Through this process, children learn about things they have in common with their counselors, and they develop a sense of connectedness. Counselors facilitate group play with clear consistent rules, where children develop a sense of belonging.

Teachers. Counselors engage all children in a game or play activity and model conflict management skills during the play. Counselors encourage teachers to help children feel invested and rooted in the classroom by having children participate in classroom chores and by making acknowledgments such as "teacher's helper of the day" and "student of the day". Teachers engage the children in writing a class story.

Parents. Counselors provide parent training classes to teach parents to model the appropriate play behaviors that they want their children to emulate. Counselors encourage parents to involve children in household chores and to play together to create the sense of family belonging. Counselors remind parents that it is natural for children to play and therefore, to be creative and playful in doing household chores with their children.

Need for Differentiation

Children need to develop a sense of separateness and differentness. They experience competence and mastery which allows a physical, emotional, and cognitive separation to develop between the parent and child.

Counselors. Counselors facilitate individual and group play while acknowledging children's unique characteristics. For example, children write, produce, and perform a puppet play which includes puppets with various personalities, intelligence levels, and talents. The counselor acknowledges each individual's contribution as uniquely important to the play.

Teachers. Counselors model using a "Coat of Arms" and other identity building activities in the classrooms. Counselors help teachers integrate the individual contributions of children into the daily classroom activities. Counselors work with teachers to provide play/work stations in the classroom where children can master individual skills. Teachers assign a writing task in which children write a story or journal about how they are unique.

Parents. Counselors provide parent training classes to encourage parents to acknowledge the uniqueness of their children as individuals. Counselors help parents to support their children in choosing play activities with which they will develop competencies and master skills.

Need to Nurture

Feeling nurturing enables children to feel loved and to feel that their love is good enough. This occurs through giving affection, assistance, gifts, or comfort.

Counselors. Counselors have play materials available which allow children to provide nurturing. These materials include medical kits, dolls, stuffed animals, and even live animals. Counselors model how to treat animals well and gently give and receive nurturing from a pet cat, for example.

Teachers. Counselors encourage teachers to engage children in nurturing activities such as caring for class pets, participating in classroom games with younger children as peer helpers, and having "pals for the week" at recess or when working on art projects.

Parents. Counselors provide parent training classes to demonstrate ways parents can help children to be nurturing at home. Counselors model how to offer positive comments to support being nurturing when children play with dolls or stuffed animals. Counselors encourage parents to ask children for small favors, to care for family pets, and to care for siblings (to the extent they are able). Parents are also taught to nurture themselves through play as models for their children.

Need for Affirmation

Children need to feel valued, recognized, and admired. This impacts on self-worth and esteem. When children are affirmed, they are able to affirm themselves. They become less dependent on others for their own sense of self-worth.

Counselors. With individuals and small groups counselors facilitate children's self affirmations and affirmations of others. These affirmations can be around drawings, group dramas, poetry, and story writing and telling.

Teachers. Counselors model using affirming language in the classroom and encourage teachers to use affirming language. Counselors help teachers shape children's language to be self-affirming and affirming of others through play activities such as story writing, drawing, and playing games at recess.

Parents. Counselors provide parent training classes to teach using affirming language. Parents are shown how to incorporate affirming language into play with children and how to shape children's language to be self-affirming during their play.

Need for Power

This is a fundamental need for inner control and command of their lives. It is not an inherent need for power over others. To be able to influence the environment, to feel consulted, to have impact, to feel heard, to experience choice are experiences of the fulfilled need for power.

Counselors. Counselors give individuals and groups of children opportunities to make choices about the play activities and materials they use. Children are able to experience impact on their play environments by "fixing" a situation by making changes in sand play, by retelling a story with a different ending, or by solving a problem with puppets engaging in a conversation.

Teachers. Counselors model involving children in class drawing or writing projects and having children "show off" the projects. Counselors then work with teachers to integrate the project processes and products into the class curriculum. Counselors encourage teachers to seek student input regarding classroom rules and setting consequences to give students a sense of being consulted.

Parents. Counselors offer parent training classes to help parents facilitate responsibility at home through choices and decision-making in children's play. Counselors work with parents to develop keen listening skills and encourage parents to make sure their children are heard as they tell a story, fantasize about their doll family, show and talk about an art project, build a block tower, or make clay figures.

Summary

School counselors help teachers and parents understand the value of play in children's development. Counselors encourage and offer support as teachers and parents engage in play with children. When counselors, teachers, and parents use play techniques with an accepting, safe relationship they will foster development of children's interpersonal needs which are fused with positive experiences at school and at home.

References

Allan, J., & Brown, K. (1993). Jungian play therapy in elementary schools. Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 28(1), 30-41.

Axline, V. (1947). Play therapy: The inner dynamics of childhood. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Barlow, K., Strother, J., & Landreth, G. (1986). Sibling group play therapy: An effective alternative with an elective mute child. The School Counselor, 44-50.

Campbell, C. A. (1993). Play, the fabric of elementary school counseling programs. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling*, *28*(1), 10-16.

Fall, M. (1994). Physical and emotional expression: A combination approach for working with children in the small areas of a school counselor's office. *The School Counselor*, *42*(1), 73-77.

Ginot, H. (1961). *Group psychotherapy with children: The theory and practice of play therapy*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Hughes, F. P. (1991). *Children, play, and development*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Kaufman, G. (1989). *The psychology of shame*. New York: Springer.

Kaufman, G. & Raphael, (1990). *Stick up for yourself*. Minneapolis: Free Spirit Publishing.

Kottman, T. T., & Johnson, V. (1993). Adlerian play therapy: A tool for school counselors. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling*, *28*(1), 42-51.

Landreth, G. L. (1987). Play therapy: Facilitative use of child's play in elementary school counseling. *Elementary School Counseling and Guidance*, *21*, 253-261.

Landreth, G. L. (1991). *Play therapy: The art of the relationship*. Muncie, Indiana: Accelerated Development Press.

Landreth, G. L. (1993). Child-centered play therapy. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling*, *28*(1), 17-29.

Miles, R. (1993). I've got a song to sing. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling*, *28*(1), 71-75.

Muro, J. J., & Kottman, T. (1995). *Guidance and counseling in the elementary and middle schools*. Madison, Wisconsin: Brown and Benchmark.

Myrick, R. D. (1993). *Developmental guidance and counseling: A practical approach*. (2nd Edition). Minneapolis: Educational Media.

Oaklander, V. (1989). *Windows to our children*. Highland, New York: Gestalt Journal.

Schaefer, C. E. (1985). Play therapy. *Early Child Development and Care*, *19*, 95-108.

Stiles, K., & Kottman, T. (1990). Mutual storytelling: An intervention for depressed and suicidal children. *The School Counselor*, *37*, 337-342.

Woytowich, J. M. (1994). Power of a poem in the counseling office. *The School Counselor*, *42*(1), 78-80.

Self-Esteem or Self-Delusion ?

By Philip O. Hwang, Ph.D.

Professor of Counseling - University of San Diego

Is there a dark side of self-esteem? Are there negative consequences to blindly promoting self-esteem? Is it self-esteem or self-delusion? Are we achieving what the proponents of self-esteem promised us?

Programs to raise self-esteem have not been able to demonstrate its' effectiveness. Neither has the promise of bringing up academic achievement through promoting self-esteem been fulfilled. Finally, as to reducing violence in criminals, these violent perpetrators have been found to possess high self-esteem. Is this the dark side of self-esteem?

For over two decades, different groups of the helping profession having been teaching and promoting self-esteem. This movement was given a big impetus in 1986, when the State of California established a special task force to Promote Self-Esteem and Personal and Social Responsibility. After almost four years of study and hearings, the task force concluded that low self-esteem is at the root of many social problems, such as crime and violence, drug and alcohol abuse, academic failure, chronic welfare dependency, child abuse and teenage pregnancy.

Since this report came out, the State of California and the entire nation have been caught up in greater frenzy of promoting self-esteem. Journals, magazines and newspapers all have published articles on the topic. A proliferation of television programs, educational organizations and political interests have jumped on this new bandwagon. It appears that many people claiming to be specialists or experts, are trying to teach self-esteem, including some with questionable motives. Many of these training manuals and books have promoted the "great benefits of self-esteem," without much critical research.

The last few years, more and more researchers, reviewers and authors have questioned the "real" benefits of self-esteem. Many are beginning to suggest that there may be a dark side of self-esteem. This overwhelmingly pervasive promotion and acquisition of self-esteem in American society is partly a result of biased and wishful thinking that simply refuses to acknowledge and accept that there is a darker side of self-esteem.

The most definitive and exhaustive study belongs to Roy Buameister, and Joseph Boden both of Case Western Reserve University, and Laura Smart of University of Virginia. In the January, 1996 issue of Journal of Psychological Review they wrote that people who engage in murder, rape, gangs, terrorism, etc., rarely suffer from low self-esteem. In fact, people with poor self-images are less violent and less aggressive than people with inflated egos.

They further point out that it is threatened egotism rather than low self-esteem that leads to violence. Moreover, certain forms of high self-esteem seem to increase one's propensity to violence. An uncritical endorsement of the cultural value of high self-esteem may therefore be counterproductive and even dangerous.

Martin Seligman in his book "The Optimistic Child" stated that the negative consequences of de-emphasizing others include: vandalism, violence, racial tensions, high divorce rates. Students' "well being," he continued, is best enhanced by pursuits that take attention away from self.

U.S. News & World Report in its June 17, 1996 issue devoted considerable time and expense to activities designed to raise public school students' self-esteem, despite the absence of evidence that improvement in self-esteem leads to better educational performance. This emphasis on self-esteem is misguided.

Thomas G. Moeller in the January, 1994 issue of Education Digest stated that research shows improved academic performance in children increases their self-esteem, although increased self-esteem does not improved academic performance. Hence, efforts to improve self-esteem in children are misplaced and should be replaced by efforts at improving academic performance.

Professor Mark R. Leary, of Wake Forest University, and a self-esteem proponent, called Baumeister's research a "wake-up call" for all in the helping professions and said it has convinced him that far too much has been made of the usefulness of self-esteem.

A Wake-Up Call

If the lack of self-esteem is not the root cause of many of our social problems, then what is? If the promotion of self-esteem is not the solution to all our wants and needs in society, then what it? Have we gone too far? Which direction should we now focus or refocus?

It is, I believe, in the maintaining of a delicate balance between self-esteem and other-esteem. Webster Dictionary has hundreds of entries with the word "self" hyphenated: self-image, self-governing, self-sufficient, etc. Not a single word, however, is hyphenated with the word "other." Does this not tell us a lot about our culture? After all, language is a form of communication and a reflection of our society. This clearly indicates that we are truly obsessed with the self and not enough with others. Today, may I be so bold as to coin a new word for Mr. Webster: - **other-esteem.**

Other-esteem is the respect, acceptance, caring, valuing, promoting and forgiving of others, without reservation. It is not just kindness towards others. The practice of kindness towards others is admirable and this world can use more of it. Sometimes, however, acts of kindness come from personal guilt, reward anticipation, social pressures, a political hidden agenda and even a personal superiority complex.

Other-esteem starts with a state of mind. It is a mental attitude that truly accepts the equality of all people. It does not look down at others because they are less wealthy, less socially connected, from another neighborhood, or of a different skin color, gender or life style. In other words, other-esteem puts one equal to others-- not above others.

Next, other-esteem is a high degree of respect, understanding and tolerance of other people who may think, believe, feel and behave differently. It is not merely an altruistic demonstration of kindness or generosity towards those who are less fortunate than us. Other-esteem demands respect, acceptance and valuing without conditions. It is also a realization and acceptance that we live in an interdependent world, and that the interaction with and dependency on other human beings are not signs of weakness or inferiority. These behaviors are reflections of strength and a higher level of human functioning.

Every individual should possess a healthy balance of both self-esteem and other-esteem. A healthy level of self-esteem based on one's achievement and a high dose of other-esteem based on one's belief and practice of other's worth. The two are not diametrically opposed; in fact, they complement each other. Self is incomplete without the Other. Self is empty without the Other. Self is lonely without the Other.

There are different levels of other-esteem. These steps are not necessarily attained in progression. Various situations and circumstances in different personal relationships will dictate the appropriate response. We don't have to demand that one always acts at levels of Valuing and Promoting of Others. This is humanly impossible and unnecessary. When we decide to take the road to other-esteem, the most important point is to remember that it is not enough only to be nice to everybody. There is more to other-esteem than just being non-offensive. We must learn to climb the ladder of other-esteem.

Other-esteem makes one more humble than proud and more cooperative than competitive. We must recognize that our lives consist of a series of complex and interrelated intricate relationships. Our relationship and interactions with others spin out around us like a spider's web; our individual actions and words may have a far-reaching effect on others. The more we go out of our way to understand, respect and accept others, the better we will feel about ourselves and our self-worth. This mutual sharing and assistance are the best ways I know to increase and enhance our self-esteem too. We have learned self-esteem from life experiences; we can acquire other-esteem from similar life experiences. It is possible and necessary to change our perspective. Increasing our degree of other-esteem will complete the self, make the self whole.

We Are Who We Are Because Of Others

Leaders are leaders as long as there are followers. Generals are commanders only because there are soldiers to carry out their orders. The president of a company exists because there are employees who listen and who follow the company's policies, missions and visions. Furthermore the success of leaders of any organization or country relies on the quality achievements and dedicated services of their followers.

In our professional and personal lives we have different and specific roles to play: sometimes as the leader, sometimes as the follower. In whatever role we choose to play, there are always others who will take up different roles. We must learn how to interact with them. We cannot live by ourselves, nor are we personally complete without others. There is a feeling of emptiness. We are mutually dependent on each other, and all of us have a profound affect on the attitudes and behaviors of the people around us.

Doses of Other-Esteem

To counteract this distorted perception of life based on the goal of self-sufficiency, we need to acquire a healthy dose of other-esteem, a new attitude and practice towards life in relation with others:

1. Realize that life is not always a competitive win-lose game; through cooperation and sharing, everyone can achieve his goals and happiness.

2. Understand and accept that life is much more than just a competitive game to see who is better, richer, stronger, smarter and more successful. Life is about caring, sharing, relationships and happiness. One important point to remember is that money cannot buy happiness. Wealth, strength, intelligence and success do not guarantee satisfaction in life.

3. Because our lives are interwoven with the lives of other people through a complex network of relationships, our success or failure can affect many others. Thus, our choices and decisions should be made only after considering the implications and potential consequences to others.

4. The attainment of individual goals and social responsibilities can be balanced by encouraging and fostering the growth of other-esteem in American society.

As the concept of other-esteem takes root and spreads throughout society, people will begin to see more clearly that in the long run, most social objectives and individual goals do converge. Through an increased awareness of our interdependence with others, our horizons will expand to include not just ourselves but those around us. A quick survey of society yields many situations where other-esteem can bridge the gap between individual goals and social objectives. When violence in our streets is curtailed, we will regain our freedom to travel without fear. When burglary and robbery decrease, we will experience less violation of our rights to ownership. These changes will not happen without our belief in human interdependency, pervasive understanding, acceptance and respect for one another.

Future Challenge: Learn to See the World Anew

How do you go about moving from self to other? How do you maintain a balance of caring for self and yet at the same time show high esteem for others? The following are issues and challenges:

1. We must learn to accept the basic principle that the self alone is insufficient and incomplete. The self can fulfill and complete itself only through meaningful relationships with others.

2. It is essential that we re-examine and challenge our present prevailing attitudes, values and beliefs. We need to understand how we are the way we are and how we think, feel and act differently from others.

3. We need to listen and learn from people of different perspectives. Many of us have mastered the skill of talking. Now we must learn to master the art of listening.

4. All of us can change our focus from self to a balanced life that includes self and other. We have to understand and believe that our own self-esteem is enhanced by the efforts and successes of any group or unit we belong to: family, church, sports teams, school, company, city, country, etc. Learn from new life experiences to see life in a more balanced view of the self-other continuum.

5. Share yourself with others. There are people out there who need our support in so many different ways. Develop your own personal support system. We need others just as they need us.

References

Baumeister, R.F., Boden, J.M., Smart, L. (1996). Relation of Threatened Egotism to Violence and Aggression: The Dark Side of High Self-Esteem. Psychological Review, 103, 5-33.

Hwang, P.O. (1995) Other-Esteem: A Creative Response To A Society Obsessed With Promoting The Self. San Diego, Black Forrest Press.

Kaplan, L.S. (1995) Self-Esteem is not our national wonder drug. School Counselor. 42, issue 5.

McMillan, J. (1995) Self-oriented self-esteem self-destruct. Education Digest, 60, Issue 7.

Seligman, M.E.P., Reivich, K. Jaycox, L., and Gillham, J. (1995) The Optimistic Child. Boston, Houghton Mifflin.

Skube, K.D. (1994) Self-esteem: A descriptive study of students of San Diego unified school district at grades 4,6, 8, 10 and 12 related to components of self-esteem. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of San Diego.

Weissbourd, R. (1996). The Feel-Good Trap. New Republic, 216, 8-9, 12.

Behavior Counseling Parents of Special Children

Qing Jiao, M.Ed.

Jiao Qing is a assistant professor of Education Department, Beijing Normal University, People's Republic of China. She offers the course of Behavior Study of Special Children to undergraduate students. She also counsels special children and their parents.

Introduction

The knowledgeable professional who works with special children recognizes that parents of special children have an important effect in children's development. If we ignore the importance of parents, our educational efforts will lessen the effectiveness. From the following reasons, we can see the roles of parents:

Special children spend a lot of their lifespan to live with their parents. They are influenced by their parents in cognitive and emotional development.

Parents can help and teach their child by one-to-one.

The rearing responsibility makes parent pay more attention to their special child than other people.

But, in China, parent involvement in special children's education was limited. There were two reasons, first, father and mother both need work, second, counseling parents of special children was lacking. There was few of professional counseling institutions who works for parents of special children. Parents lack of necessary knowledge and skills of special education to teach their child. With the development of Chinese special education, more and more professionals now are aware of the gravity that we should help parents of special children. Through behavioral counseling, we can help parents to build healthy parent-child interaction, to involve positively their child's educational actions, to give more contributions to the growth of their child.

Behavioral Counseling

Behavioral counseling was accepted by practitioners in many years ago. Through a long time research, professionals made some essential statements of behavioral counseling.

The fundamental assumption is that most human behavior is learned and can be changed.

The theoretical basis is learning theory. Counseling strategies are based on the principle of learning.

The purpose is to decrease ineffective behavior, develop effective behavior that are personally self-fulfilling, productive, and socially acceptable.

Emphasizing that the changing of observed behavior is measurable.

Behavioral Counseling Parents of Special Children

In parent intervention programs, professionals are aware of the productive contributions that parents can make toward their child's growth. Our studies show that all kinds of special children have a lot of problem behavior and could not adapte society. We should teach parents the principles and skills of behavior management. Through learning, parents can bring about specific changes in their child's behavior.

The process of Behavioral Counseling

We think that behavioral counseling consists four essential stages. The counselor will face different tasks to deal with in different stages.

Stage I: Understand the feelings of parents.

Researchers have found when a child is diagnosed as disabled, his parent will go through a series of reaction period such as shock and disruption, denial, sadness, anxiety and fear, anger and finally adaptation. Besides these, parents report that they feel guilt. Sometimes the relationship between family members change, marital issue arises because father and mother have different attitude toward their disabled child. Many parents feel they have lost control over their own home and life, they need deal with a very difficult thing by themselves, and want to seek supports to help them to get through it. The counselor can give parents psychological comforts and supports by listening and communicating empathic understanding.

Stage II: Develop a close relationship with parents.

Counselors must maintain a positive attitude towards parents. Counselors must encourage parents to express their feelings, their questions and their suggestions. The conversation between counselors and parents should be relaxed, happy and effective.

Stage III: Help parents learn and apply behavioral principles.

In this period, counselors and parents should decide how to meet the parents' needs and what technique will be effective. O'Dell believes behavior modification is useful for parents. Behavior modification techniques are easy to learn for parents. Through learning and applying behavior principles, parents can manage their child's behavior.

Training parents in behavior modification:

Before using behavior modification techniques, parents should have an understanding of what a behavior is, how behavior are learned, and how to influence a behavior.

Parents should realize the basic principle of behavior modification that behavior is learned, can be taught. Human behavior is learned through interaction with the other person and surrounding environment.

Parents should master the law of behavior reinforcement.

Also, parents should master the steps of behavior modification . The steps are following:

Selecting a target behavior.

Recording the incidence of problem behavior.

Identifying appropriate reinforcers.

Implementing behavior intervention.

Evaluating behavior intervention.

When planning behavior intervention, parents should take the disable category of child and the pattern of child's problem behavior into account.

According Stewart's view(1986), using behavior modification techniques, parents can manage their child's behavior in the following aspects:

Maintaining adaptive behavior.

Shaping a new adaptive behavior.

Increasing or strengthening a good or adaptive behavior.

Decreasing or weakening a bad or mal-adaptive behavior.

Applying behavior modification techniques, parents develop two kinds of ability of special children:

Language ability.

Self-helping ability.

In the past, behavior modification for special children were focused primarily on eliminating problem behavior. Now we find that if the problem behavior is reduced in one context, it might reappear in another context. So, we should be prudent in using punishment procedure. We suggest that parents use positive reinforcement to reward child's in-seat behavior, not use punishment to decrease child's out-seat behavior. Keep the positive mood is useful for the growth of child.

Stage IV: Keep in touch with parents.

When parents implement behavior modification plan, counselor should keep contacting with parents by individual interviews, telephone conversation. Counselors help parents evaluate the effect of behavior intervention, select the best way to involve themselves in the education program of their child. The purpose of behavioral counseling of parents of special children is help parents broaden their involvement to enhance child's growth.

Reference

Walker, J. E., & Shea, T. M. (1986). Behavioral Management: a practical approach for educators. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company.
Martin, G., & Pear, T. (1992). Behavior Modification: what it is and how to do it, 4th ed. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
Schloss, P. J., & Smith, M. A. (1994). Applied Behavior Analysis In The Classroom. Needham Height, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
Yale, W., & Carr, J. (1987). Behavioral Modification: for people with mental handicaps. New York, NY: Croom Helm.
Stewart, J. C., (1986). Counseling Parents of Exceptional Children. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co.
Hallahan, D. P., & Kauffman, J. M. (1994). Exceptional Children: introduction to special education. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
Jiao Qing. Application of Behavior Modification Techniques to Family Education. Psychological Development and Education, 1996, 4. 61-64.

Contact address:
Jiao Qing, Dept. of Education, Beijing Normal University, Beijing 100875, People's Republic of China.
Tel: 0086-10-62207927.

A Study on an Image of the "Ibasyo" or Psychologically Comfortable Space for the Children of Non-attendant at School through the ○△□ Technique

Yasuko Nakamura (Osaka City Child Guidance Clinic)

Yasuko Nakamura is a Ph.D. candidate in clinical psychology at the Osaka City University in Japan. She has been working at the Osaka City Child Guidance Clinic as a clinical psychologist for four years. She is engaged in consultation and psychotherapy for the children of non-attendant at school and delinquent children along with routine work in the clinic.

INTRODUCTION

In this paper, the author discusses the image of the "Ibasyo" or psychologically comfortable space of non-attendant at school, whom the author met at the Osaka City Child Guidance Clinic. In a high technological age, children who cannot adjust to school are increasing in Japan (Inamura, 1994). Generally, children spend time with the family in the house while they play with friends and study with teachers at school. However, those who are non-attendant at school are likely to have no "Ibasyo" or psychologically comfortable space whether it is in a house or at school. So that they have no where they can make themselves comfortable. The "Ibasyo" or psychologically comfortable space is a space where an individual feels comfortable, feels at ease or feels at home, which concept is considered as an important index for therapeutic environment for the psychotics through our studies (Nakamura, 1992, Matusita, 1993). In other words, whether or not an individual has his or her "Ibasyo" depends on psychological healthiness. The author has been interested in finding more elaborated images of their psychologically comfortable space through the ○△□ technique. The ○△□(circle, triangle, and square) technique has been developed as a sort of projective technique by the author since 1992.

INSTRUCTION

The ○△□ technique is as follows; First, a white letter sized-paper(7.2 × 10.1 inch) without any drawing is given to each child and asked to locate wherever they feel like they want to mark a dot. Second, the same sized-paper with ○ is shown and the child is, this time, requested to locate the dot where he or she feels like to put it. Also △, and then □, with the same procedure is administered to the child. Then, the child is asked why he or she locates the dot as it is. Third, he or she is asked to answer five questions. (1) Are you comfortable with what you have located your dot? (2) Is your dot stable? (3) Is your dot explicitly visible? (4) Is your dot dynamic enough to be alive? (5) Are you satisfied with your dot? Finally, the child chooses the most liked one and the most disliked one from among four kinds of papers (white paper, ○, △, and □). And then, the child chooses the paper suitable for the association of the following four kinds of scenes respectively; One is "at school". Another is "in the house". Other is "with the friend". Yet another is "alone".

METHODS

The ○△□ technique was administered by the author to 14 children. The instruction of the technique as stated above was given individually at the test room. There were 5 boys and 9 girls, aged ranging from 12 years old to 14 years old. The children were divided into two types; psycho-neurotic type (PNT) and school truancy type (STT). The former is an unsociable type that they are kept in the house and with one or two psychosomatic symptoms such as a stomachache or a headache. The latter is an antisocial type that they sometimes run away from home and play with friends all night. They were shown in the Table 1. The results were analysed both statistically and individually.

Table 1. Subjects (N=14)

	sex	
	boys	girls
Psycho-neurotic type (PNT)(N= 9)	2	7
School Truancy type (STT) (N= 5)	3	2
Total	5	9

RESULTS

The preference of paper

The paper with ○ was chosen as the paper most liked (50%). The white paper, △, and □ were almost equally chosen as the paper most disliked (28.6% respectively). These were shown in Fig. 1 .

The scenes

The white paper and △ were chosen as scenes mostly with "at school" (41.7% respectively). As for "in the house", ○ and □ were chosen most (33.3% respectively). As for "with friends", ○ was chosen most (36.4%). As for "alone", the white paper was chosen most (62.5%). These were shown in Fig. 2 .

The relationship between the preference of paper and the scenes

It was examined the relationship between the preference of paper and the scenes. These were shown in Figure 3 .

First, there were 12.5% in PNT (N=8) who chose the scene of "at school" as the paper they preferred as "the like", while there was 0% in STT (N=4). Then, there were more than the half children of both PNT and STT who chose the scene of "at school" as the paper they preferred as "the dislike" (50% respectively).

Second, there were 57.1% in PNT (N=7) who chose the scene of "in the house" as the paper they preferred as "the like", while there were 20% in STT (N=5). Then, there was 0% in PNT who chose the scene of "in the house" as the paper they preferred as "the dislike", while there were 40% in STT. It was found that the image of the house was related to a good image for PNT, and a bad image for STT.

Third, there were 50% in PNT (N=6) who chose the scene of "with friend" as the preferred as "the like", while there were 40% in STT (N=5). Then, there was no child who chose the scene of "with friend" as the paper they preferred as "the dislike" in PNT, while in STT chose the same paper (20%).

Finally, there were 20% in PNT (N=5) who chose the scene of "alone" as the paper they preferred as "the like", while there were 25% in STT (N=4). And, there were more than the half children of PNT who chose the paper of "alone" as the paper they preferred as "the dislike" (60%), while there were fewer children of STT who chose the same (25%). In other words, the PNT children seemed to hate becoming to be alone, and the STT children didn't seemed to have so much resistance becoming to be alone.

DISCUSSION

In this study, it was found that the children of non-attendant at school felt no "Ibasyo" at school, that is, they could not feel comfortably at school, although they wanted to go to school, because most of them chose their image of the scene in which they were at school but they also chose the same scene as the one they disliked. Most of the children of psycho-neurotic type relaxed comparatively in the house and they did not want to spend time alone. So he or she wanted to spend time with the friend. On the other hand, the school truancy type did not relax even in the house. They were all right to spend time alone. However, he or she seemed to have fun with the friend.

In general, neither the former nor the latter acquires the capacity to be alone after all. In the children of psycho-neurotic type, the reason why they want to be with the friend is that he or she has not acquired the capacity to be alone. Then, in the children of school truancy type, the reason that they don't care much to be alone is that they have not been acquired the capacity to be alone enough, but they have been deprived from the parent-child relationship since the early childhood. So it can be said that they want to be with the friend, too.

For instance, Winnicott (1958) described that the capacity to be alone is developed based on the premise that he or she has had some experiences which enabled them to feel all right to become alone. If the child has not experienced it good enough, he or she can not develop the capacity. For instance, those who can become interested in playing, they are the ones who can be themselves and independent while playing. Whereas those who can not play by themselves are the ones who are not psychologically independent.

Most psycho-neurotic type children are poor in keeping for a psychologically moderate distance from others. For instance, a girl of the psycho-neurotic type and a non-attendant at school screamed in a therapy session as follows; "When I said something to my friend, she said she was psychologically hurt. Since then, I have made it a rule to myself that I won't say anything to other." and "This attitude gradually lead me to the point where I became less and less interested in expressing my feelings, and what was worse was I tended to loose what I was feeling or experiencing. I have lost my opinion. I have no sense on "Ibasyo". I am not "I". After all, I don't myself." Thus, the psycho-neurotic type children are not good at measuring as to how for or near they can come to others in terms of psychological distance in interpersonal relationships.

On the other hand, the school truancy type children will say that "I am relived when I am with somebody. So even when I am invited to smoke or to shoplift, I can not refuse it, although I know it is not a good thing.

It can be said that the psycho-neurotic type children tended to have self-consciousness which sometimes becomes too much to cope with others, while the school truancy type children are somewhat opposite is that they have poor self-consciousness so that when asked by others they can not refuse it.

These speculation along with the findings from the present study are consistent with was described by a Japanese psychiatrist, Kitayama (1993). He says that "I" can be interchangeably used for "Ibasyo".

Finally, to help the children have their own "Ibasyo", any art therapy was helpful according to my experience. Also, a drawing of the ○ or □ in a paper was helpful to let the children feel at ease and feel their "Ibasyo" or a psychologically comfortable space.

REFERENCES

Inamura, H. (1994) *A Study of Non-attendance at School* (in Japanese). Sinyou Publisher.

Nakamura, Y. (1992) *The Design Process of the ○△□ Technique as a Projection Technique; A Study about the "Ibasyo" or Psychologically Comfortable Space and the Sense to be* (in Japanese). Unpublished Master's thesis, Osaka City University.

Matusita, K. (1993) *A study on the "I-Basyo" Feeling or the Space for the Schizophrenic Patients* (in Japanese). Unpublished Master's thesis, Osaka City University.

Kitayama, O. (1993) *"I" and "Ibasyo"* (in Japanese). Iwasaki Science Publisher.

Winnicott, D. W. (1958) *Capacity to be Alone*. Int.J.Psycho-Anal., 39, 416-420

Fig. 1 The preference of paper

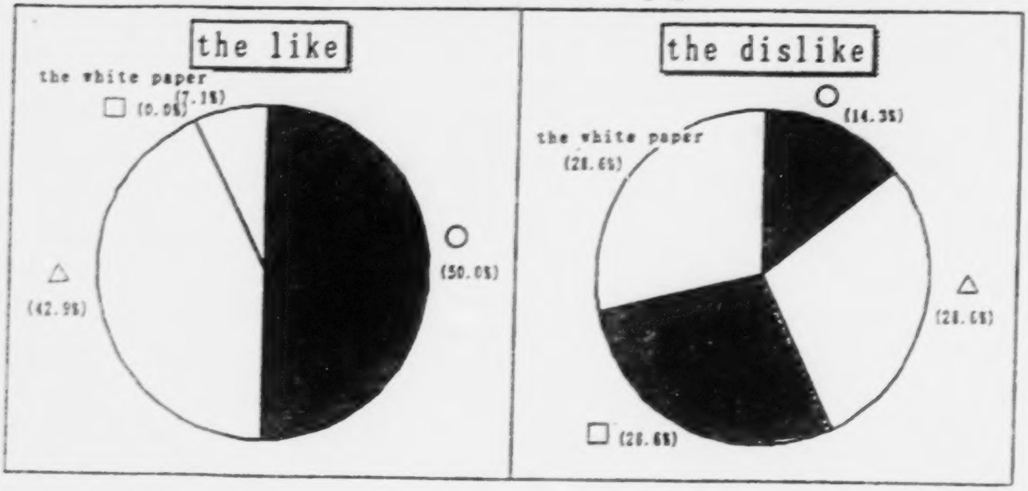


Fig. 2 The scenes

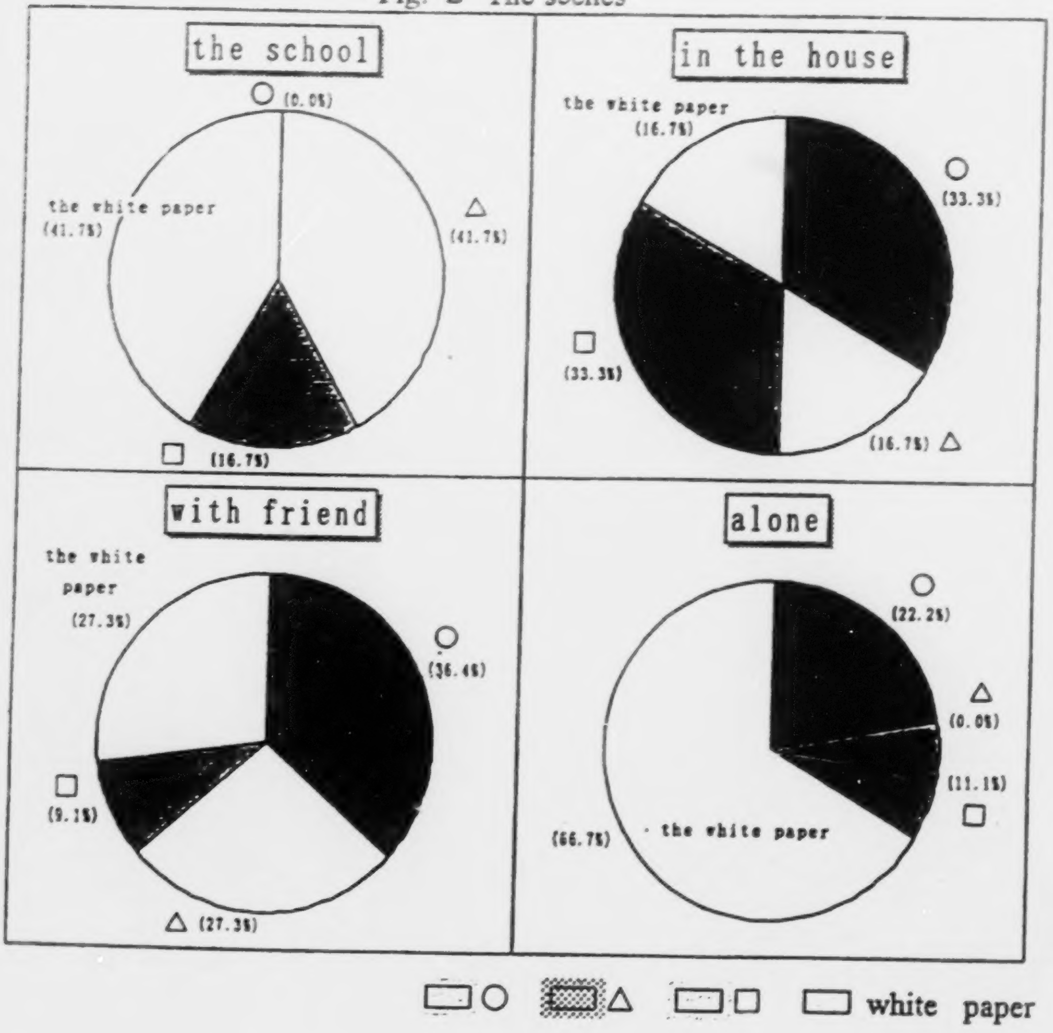
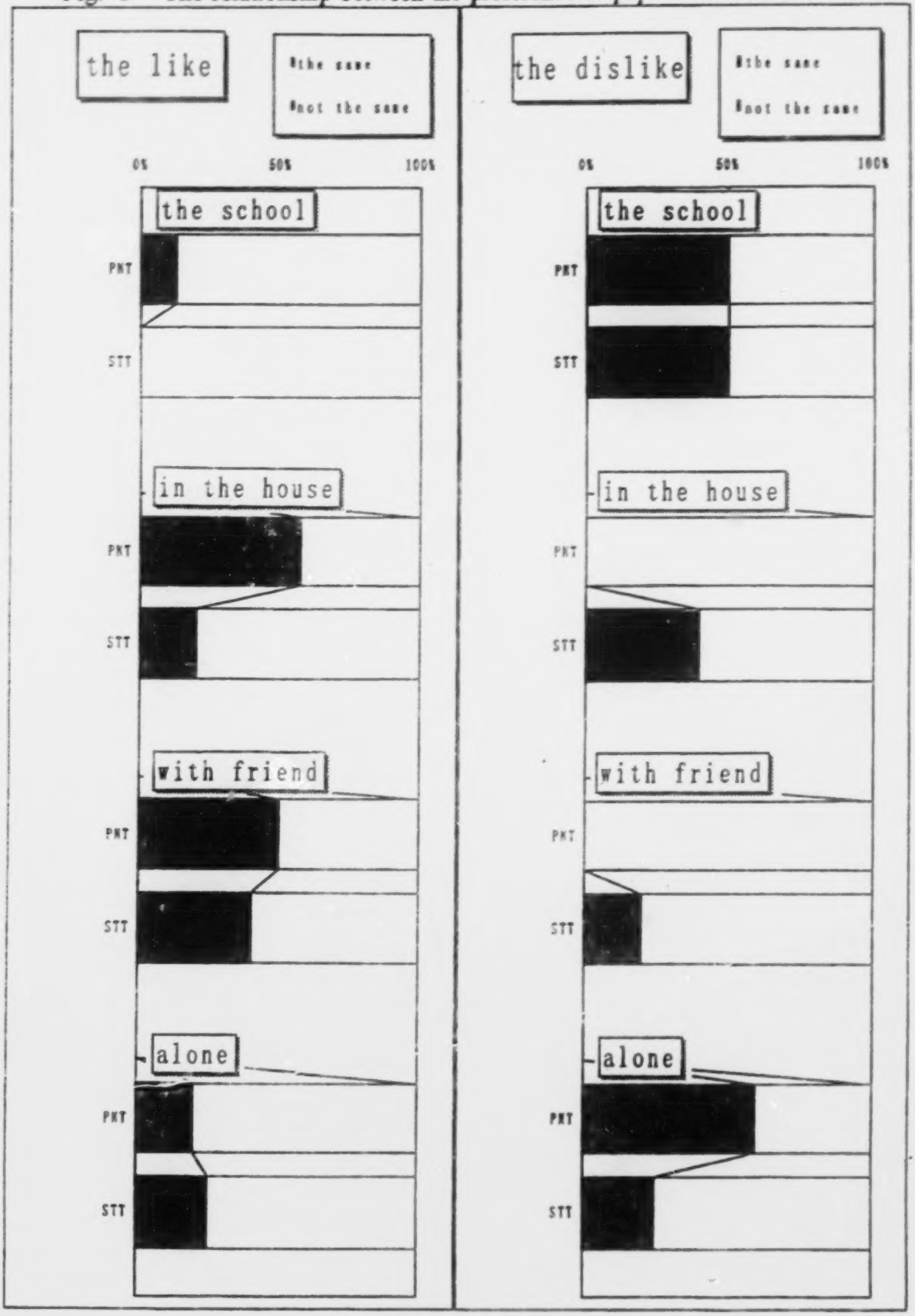


Fig. 3 The relationship between the preference of paper and the scenes



BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Education and Counseling on Adolescent Life

Peicheng Hu, Ailan Wu

Hu, Peicheng M.D. Associate Dean, in the Division of Humanities and Social Sciences, Associate Professor, in the Department of Medical Psychology of Beijing Medical University. He had rich experiences in the teaching and counseling on adolescent education to the middle school and universities' students.
Wu, Ailan, assistant Professor, in the Health School of Beijing Medical University. She did a lot of teachings and researches on adolescent education to the health school students.

Today in China, the exchanging of different economic systems, the blending of traditional and modern cultures, the impacting of new and old value ideas were happened. The Chinese young students are growing in the environment that mass media from different ways that provided a lot of information and made their views different from their parents. They put away their parent's ideas, such as:" Face color changes when talking sex", to explore the knowledge of adolescent development. On the other hand, by the bending of sex confined and sex ignorant, their thinking became puzzled, even they did a lot of abnormal sexual behaviors.

With the development of Chinese economic reform and opening door, many medical and educational workers provided the adolescent life education and counseling from the aspects of sexual medicine, sexual education, sexual ethics and sexual law. Their researches got good results. National Education Commission and Public Health Ministry issued documents to ask educational units to engage in the adolescent education and counseling. In this paper, the results of the researches and practices will be reported as follows.

I. Chinese History of Adolescent Education

Chinese adolescent education history had a long tortuous process that was from forbidden to open. After the liberation of the People's Republic of China, the history can be divided into four stages:

1. Initiating stage of adolescent education (1949-1997)

In this period, the main thing happened was to advocate sexuality education. Pre-Premier Zhou Enlai paid attention to adolescent education. In 1954, he gave the speech to the graduated universities students talking about getting rid of the mystery of sex and encouraged the educators to engage in the sexuality education. In 1963, during the Conference of National Health and Science Planning, Premier Zhou pointed out to promote the adolescent education in suitable time. In 1976, during Premier Zhou illness, he emphasized again the adolescent sexual education should be arranged properly. But in fact, at that time, there were many difficulties. For example, some of the teachers didn't agree to put the reproductive organ in the text. During this period, adolescent education still was "forbidden zone".

2. A rising stage of adolescent education (1978-1984)

During this stage , the old idea about sex was begun to get rid of. The forbidden zone of sexual education was opened with the development of reform. The sexual information was gradually infiltrated into China. Many people began to realize the importance and urgency of sexual education. The Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Public Health united to publish " The Rules of Health Work in the Primary and Middle School". In this "Rules", it pointed out: " we should strengthen the adolescent education in China". From 1980, " Population Education " was taught in many Chinese senior high schools. Some of the popular science books about sexual knowledge were published . In 1982, Professor Wu Jieping translated and edited " Sexual Medicine ". He introduced the American sexual experts' research fruits into China. This book made Chinese readers "opened their eyes " and had great influences to the history of Chinese adolescent education. At the same time, many educational and medical workers wrote a lot of articles talking about adolescent education from different aspects. In some of Beijing and Shanghai Middle Schools , teaching material were published, lectures were organized, the experiences were collected.

3. Developing stage of adolescent education (1984-1987)

During this stage, some of experiments were organized and practiced in Beijing and Shanghai . In June of 1984, the research and teaching group was set up by the Beijing Education Bureau to give the guidance to the experiments for the junior high school students. In 1985, under the guidance of Shanghai Youth Research Institute, the adolescent lectures were done in about one hundred middle schools. In other cities and provinces, a few of lectures were done by the educators.

The books "Adolescent Education for Middle School Students", " Popular knowledge for the Adolescence " were published at this period. It means to end the history of no teaching material in adolescent education in China. The direction of research and practice of adolescent education became in many ways and centralized.

In June of 1985, the seminar of adolescent education was held in Shanghai, it focused on the contents and methods of adolescent education and counseling. In 1986, the same seminar was held in Beijing. In these seminars, they pointed out that every middle school should have the special group of adolescent education and put these lectures into the whole system of education.

301

In 1988, " The Rules of Adolescence and Youth Protection in Shanghai " were passed by the Shanghai People's Congress. In this "Rules", one article is about the task of adolescent education. So the adolescent education was developed fast later on.

4. Extending stage of adolescent education

In this stage, Chinese National Education Commission put the adolescent education into the education planning. In 1988, on the spot meeting of adolescence education was held in Shanghai by the leadership of National Education Commission. It pointed out the procedure of education in detail. After the meeting, experiments and practices of adolescence education were carried out in the whole country.

In 1987, in the Planning of " National Seventh Five-Year Project", the research of adolescent education (RAE) was put into the key research program. In 1991, in the Planning of " National Eighth Five-Year Project ", the RAE also was put into the key contents.

Later, in 1989, 1990, 1992, the Seminars of Theory and Practice of Adolescence Education were held by the guidance of National Education Commission. In this period, Chinese theory and practice of adolescence education into the new stage.

II. Sexual physiological and psychological characters on Chinese adolescent life

Since 1987, surveys were widely engaged in the development of physiology and psychology on the urban and rural areas, adolescent sexuality educations were done in schools and families. We got several scientific reports and some analytical conclusions.

1. Shift to an earlier day on sexual physiological growth maturity

The average age of Chinese girl's first menstruation is 13.38 years old. In 1960's, it was 14.50 years old. So it became one year earlier. The average age of Chinese boy's first spermatorrhea is 14.43 years old. In 1960's it was 16.60 years old. So it is two years earlier.

Comparing with the foreign middle school students, Chinese youth's ages of menstruation and spermatorrhea are older. The recent investigation in Japan, the girl's first menstruation's age is 12.60 years old. The boy's first spermatorrhea age is 13.40 years old. In general, the maturity of Chinese puberty is about one year later than that in Japan, America and Soviet Union.

2. Shift to an earlier day on sex psychological development maturity

Psychological development manifested in two parts: the sex experience by self and the contact with the opposite sex. The researches show the average age of Chinese youth on the first concerning of the sex affairs, the first sex impulse ,the first masturbation , the first sex dream and the first thinking to touch the opposite sex body is 14-16 years old. There is no difference onmale and female.

3. The age of sex behavior became younger

In the age of 14-16 years old, Chinese adolescents began to contact with the opposite sex. Among them, 12% youth had a secret meeting of lovers; 9% youth told they had boy or girl friends; 7% female and 21% male wanted to touch the opposite sex boy. In the ways of touching the opposite sex body: 70% hand in hand, 10% to embrace or kiss, 5% caress lovely, 3% intercourse.

4. To take an opened and clear manner about sex idea

58% male and 45% female of youth thought the sex behavior was normal activity that everyone had. The 12% of adolescent thought sex was bright and happy activity. Lower than 5% of adolescent thought it was dirty and obscene. Asked the students in the middle school whether the students can be in love or not: 50% students thought it was not suitable, 24% male and 16% female students thought it was helpful to be in love in middle school period.

5. The rate of sex fault was getting up

The sex fault means a general behavior term of breaking the law and a criminal offence on sexual relations, eg: pregnancy in the young girl, rape, gang rape and so on. In some areas, the number of rape and gang*rape in 1986 was 10.7 times than in 1977.

6. The lack of sex knowledge

70% male and female of adolescents had no psychologicalpreparation for the first menstruation and the first spermatorrhea. They didn't know how about the sexual impulse and masturbation. 70% female young girls didn't know where the baby to be born, where the foetus be growing up. This is the contradiction with the earlier physiological development.

III. The factors influencing Chinese Youth sexual physiology and psychology development

According to the research of experts on adolescent education, there are two factors influencing youth sexual psychology and idea changing.

1. Public mass media

According to the investigation, the biggest factor influencing middle school student's sexual idea and behavior is the mass media about over 70% in male and female. Today the middle school students accept much wore social information than before. So their psychological maturity became earlier , sexual activity became younger. From the reports by students themselves, some contents in newspapers, magazines, arts books and so on gave them great stimulation and temptation. All these lovely information gave the young sense organ stimulation, emotion expression and affected their world life view and moral idea, also influenced their development in sexual physiology and psychology. All these influences always infiltrated soul and spirit of the Chines youth.

2. Contradiction between social maturity and sexual physiology maturity

Today the young faced the contradiction between sexual physiology maturity earlier and social maturity sluggish. In general, it takes about 10-15 years, after their sexual physiology maturity to their legal sexual behavior.

During these years, how to deal with the sexual puzzles in the young students? Hard study to get higher education level©©sublimating their sexual impulse is a good and real method resolved.

IV. The principles of adolescence education and counseling

In many countries from all over the world, some of the principles are used when they engage the adolescent education and counseling.

1. The principle integrate the sexuality education and moral education

With the social changing, sexual idea and sexual value are also varied. Under this circumstance, moral education must be adapted with sexual education.

2. The principle of no irritating libido

We should avoid all kinds sexual temptation to the youth. Because the young students didn't have the inner self control power. We should ask the young students keep their libido in the lowest status. We shouldn't stimulate the student's libido.

3. The principle of respecting the student's secrets

The teacher and counselor shouldn't talk or open the student's secrets. When the student spoke out the private matters, the counselor should maintain the secrecy. You can talk with the student: " For the past, let it past " , this is helpful to the student. When the student talked out their " secrets " to the counselor, he or she will feel much better in his or her feeling.

4. The principle of harmony

Sexuality education and counseling should be in the united and harmony environment. The environment should include school, family and society. The principle of harmony means the sexuality education should keep in step with , continuously in the society , family and school.

V. The Direction of Development of Sexuality Education and Counseling

The adolescent education and counseling will develop fast in the future of China . Sexuality education is a social system project dealt with multi-disciplines, transform social traditions. It directly influences the successor's moral and culture diathesis. So we must actively engaged in adolescent life education with serious manner . We hope to let more and more people to understand the importance of adolescent life education and let them take part in our research and practice. The direction of further work will be as follows:

1. Many concepts should be defined

Now there are many concepts in the puberty education onfused. Some of the concepts' meanings are not clear and easy to ake mistakes resulted in different implication. Such as: sexual interfere, sexual defect, early love and so on. Now we should clarify some of the concepts and unified. We can use some of the useful concepts from physiology, psychology and sociology.

2. Establishing the standards of maturity of adolescent physiological growth, psychological development and sexual moral

All of the standards should be reasonable, scientific and authoritative.

3. Draw lessons from foreign countries in the theory and method on sexuality education

We should compare all foreign experiences with our researches and practices. We should learn from foreign countries strong points to offset our own weaknesses.

4.Summarize accumulated theory research and practical results

We'll reveal the rules of adolescent education and counseling to establish the basic theory system. In the curriculum designed, different grades teaching textbook and qualified teachers training, a lot of researches and works should be done.

Puberty is the youth's "golden season of life", also is the key period of personality formed. The health of sexual physiology and psychology makes great influence to the maturity of whole personality.

Adolescent life education and counseling should put our view from the angle of psychological diathesis, moral accomplishment, social activities, appreciation of beautiful, temperament and interest. Through the training of health sexual psychology and sexual awareness, the adolescent personality can be mould by themselves actively. Facing the 21 century challenge, health successors is the key factor of Chinese future.

Reference

Yao Peikuan, " Research of Contemporary Adolescent Education" Henan People's Press, 1994
The Group of Program on Adolescent Education, "The Report of the Investigation on Adolescent Education ", Xuelin Press, 1990
Hong Jiahe, " Sexuality Education " Shanghai People's Press , 1989
Wu Jieping, " Sexual Medicine " Science and Technology Press , 1984
Pan Guangdan " Sexual Psychology ", Sanlian Press , 1987
Wang Wei, " Sexual Ethics ", Beijing People's Press , 1992
Ruan Fangfu , " The Handbook of Sexual Knowledge ", Science and Technology Press , 1985
Zhao Yanfu , " The Guidance to the Adolescent Health ", Literature Press , 1992
Liu Dalin, " Chinese Contemporary Sexuality Culture", Sanlian Press, 1992
Gao Dewei, " Sexuality Health Pedagogy" Neimeng People's Press ,1995

Contact address:
Dr. Peicheng Hu, Dept. of Medical Psychology, Beijing Medical University, Beijing 100083, P.R.China, Tel: (86-10) 62091543 (O), 62091029 (H) Fax: (86-10) 62091473 or 62015681
E-mail: ShWB@mail.bjmu.edu.cn

Human Dignity, Decency, and Integrity as the Sine Qua Non of Human Rights Education: A Proactive Conceptual and Practical Framework for Promotion of World Peace

by

Daya Singh Sandhu Ed.D., NCC, NCSC, NCCC

Chair and Associate Professor
Department of Educational & Counseling Psychology
University of Louisville
Louisville, KY 40292
(502) 852-6646
Fax: (502) 852-0629
Email: dssand01@ulkyvm.louisville.edu

Human Dignity, Decency, and Integrity as the Sine Qua Non of Human Rights Education: A Proactive Conceptual and Practical Framework for Promotion of World Peace

This presentation will underscore the significance of personal dignity, decency and integrity as the core values and symbionic concepts to promote human rights education. A proactive model with philosophical ramifications and practical applications will be proposed for educators, researchers, and mental health practitioners interested in human rights issues and global peace. Suggestions will be made how to implement and assess the efficacy of this newly postulate model.

.Introduction

This proactive model is proposed to enhance global peace through human rights education. This model assumes that matters relating to ethics and values rather than economic and political structures play a prominent role in causing and resolving problems at all levels: local, social, and international (Reardon, 1995). The global system issues are human rights issues. The disparity in ethics as applied to one's own group and outer groups seem to be the underlying reasons of ethno-conflicts, historical hate and ethno-violence.

In order to promote intercultural and international harmony and peace, it is imperative that human rights education place major emphasis upon cultivating the abilities of individuals to make their daily decisions on principles that value human decency and human dignity. Thus, the ultimate goal of this model is to proactively inculcate moral sensitivities that are necessary for people to become responsible, genuine, and caring global citizens. For this reason, it is important that educators, researchers, and mental health practitioners have some well thought and preplanned strategies and action plans.

To implement new action plans, it is crucial that there are some shifts in social, political, and economic paradigms. Naturally emphasis from elitism would change to egalitarianism. Not only political democracy shall remain important, but also "cultural democracy" and eventually "economic democracy" would become essential. Glorification of the individual and human rights concern would gain prominence. Diversity would be celebrated and differences would be acknowledged, accepted, accommodated, and appreciated.

The new paradigms will require new approaches for implementation. Intrapsychic models will also have to be re-examined from inter-psychic perspectives. The focus from autoplastic concerns should also review alloplastic possibilities. These approaches have to be proactive in nature. Human rights actions have to become a priority which would require commitment through sacrifices of time, efforts, and willingness to tolerate criticisms. The educators themselves have to develop new attitudes of empathy, genuineness, and respect. Major emphasis will be placed on developing and enhancing critical thinking through various strategies and techniques. Some of these strategies will include intellectual curiosity, open-mindedness, flexibility, intellectual honesty and respect for others' viewpoints.

Synopsis of the Presentation

1. Human Dignity and Human Decency as the Core Values to Promote World Peace

2. Role of dignity in human rights education.

3. Paradigm shifts to emphasize the role of human dignity,

Shift from elitism	to	egalitarianism
Cultural democracy	to	economic democracy
Melting pot theory	to	Salad Bowl
Autoplastic	to	alloplastic
Reactive approaches	to	proactive approaches
Equal opportunity	to	equity

4. Counter Forces

   A. Violence
      physical, verbal, emotional, behavioral

   B. Prejudice
      ethnocentrism, sexism, racism, ageism, classism, elitism, etc.

   C. Cultural Alienation
      cultural alienation, cultural dissonance, different world views
      cultural values

   D. Miscellaneous
      child rearing practices, ecological adaptation, historical hostilities, mistrust, unexpressed collective anger

5. Strategies to Promote Human Dignity and Decency

   A. Three necessary and sufficient conditions (Carl Rogers)
      empathy, genuineness, unconditional positive regard

   B. Critical and Divergent Thinking
      intellectual curiosity, objectivity, open-mindedness, flexibility, intellectual honesty, persistence, respect for other viewpoints

   C. Values
      Acknowledge, accept, accommodate, appreciate, adopt

   D. Additional Strategies
      cooperative learning, problem solving, assertive training, realistic life planning

6. Proactive Approaches

   1. Making it a priority

   2. Clear cut mission and goals

   3. Concrete plans

   4. Commitment
      educating others, persistence, sacrificing time, energies, and efforts

7. Evaluation
   self-reports, standardized instruments, and other techniques

---

Reardon, B.A. (1995). Educating for human dignity: Learning about rights and responsibilities. Philadelphia, PA: University of Pennsylvania Press.

The Development of Counseling and Psychotherapy in China

Zheng richang, Zhang wen, Tan Li, Zhang Shanshan
Psychology Dept. of Beijing Normal University

I. Theory and Practice of Ancient China

While introducing the development of Chinese counseling and psychotherapy, we can trace back to the source from the traditional Chinese medical science thousand of years ago, which is emphasis the unity of the body and mind. The theory thinks that the interaction of the body and mind and the psychological regulating function to the body should be paid attention to during the diagnosis of a disease. There remained rich cases of psychotherapy among the cases of traditional Chinese medical science. Here we will introduce the basic theories and concerned cases .

Basic Theories

The basic theories of traditional Chinese medical science include the Integrative Theory of Yin and Yang, the Five Elements, the Heart is in Charge of Activity and the Visceral Manifestation. Ancient medical scientists made use of these theories synthetically to direct their practice.

The Integrative Theory of Yin and Yang

Ancient Chinese have a fundamental Philosophical theory to regard all the things in the world as a unified whole which consist of Yin and Yang. This theory is the most fundamental theory of Chinese Traditional Medical Science. The theory says , in the relationship of spirit and body, spirit belongs to Yin and body belongs to Yang. Spirit and body interplay, can not be separated and form a unified whole. When the interaction of spirit and body reaches moderation, man is healthy. The moderation of spirit and body rely on not only their mutual adjustment, but also the relationship between the nature and them. Only when the nature and man coordinate together and man regulate himself according to the change of nature, can he be healthy. The thought of the integration theory of Yin and Yang were expounded clearly in *Familiar Conversation From the Yellow Emperor's Canon of Internal Medicine*. From the above, we can summarize that the pattern of traditional Chinese Medical Science is the pattern of biology--psychology--nature. The integrative theory Yin and Yang runs through not only the realization of physical and mental development and cure practice, but also other kinds of fundamental theories such as the Five Elements theory, the Heart in Charge of Mental Activities theory, of the Visual Manifestation theory and Seven Emotions and so on.

The Five Element Theory

The Five Element Theory, one of the fundamental theories for Chinese Ancient Philosophy, is the development of the Yin and Yang Theory. Traditional Chinese Medical Science believes that the relationship between emotion thought and Five Elements among wood, fire, earth, metal and water is that panic-stricken from the ridden belonging to water, joy from heart to fire, anger from the liver towed, anxiety from the spleen to earth, sorrow and grief from the luring to metal. According to Generation and Restriction or checking Relation in Five Elements, the psychological cure method papered that each is considered to restrict the subsequent one among sorrow, anger, anxiety, panic-stricken and joy.

The Theory of the Heart Is in Charge of Mental Activities

The Heart refers to spirit and nervous system, mental activities refers to the general show of the human beings' life. The Heart Is In Charge Of Mental Activities means that the spirit nervous system plays an outstanding role in the body. The activities of human's Zang and Fu organs must be in the control of the spirit and nervous system. It was said in the *Yellow Emperor's Canon of Internal Medicine* that the Five Zang Organs and Six Fu organs are governed by the heart and sorrow and grief can lead to the change of the Zang and Fu organs.

The Visceral Manifestation Theory

"Referred Symptoms" is an important method of understanding things in Traditional Chinese Medical Science. What is called referred symptoms are the ways to infer and under stand the things and theories which are too far or mysterious to be seen or known by means of observing their appearance which can be seen hearty.

The Visceral Manifestation Theory refers to that Five Viscera affects Five Emotions which contain the spirit, the soul, vigor, and will, wish. The details as what *Familiar Conversation* has said are the heart stores of the spirit, the lung stores the vigor, the liver stores the soul ,the spleen stores will , the kidney stores wish. When Zang and Fu's pathological appearance conquers, unusual psychological phenomenon arises. As *Yellow Emperor's Canon of Internal Medicine* says that certain mental activities will not be normal if the function of the liver are not kept in the normal state., which even lead to Mania-Depressive Syndrome and mysterious illusion, and cause the patients not to be able to feel their surrounding very clearly.

Chinese Ancient Counseling or Psychotherapy Method and Cases

From the above fundamental theories of Traditional Chinese medicine, we can see that the thought of the unity of body and mind of the Traditional Chinese Medicine runs through the whole of the medicine theory from the beginning to the end. Just because of that, people pay much attention to the psychological adjustment of the patients during the practice of cure.Pharmaceutical treatment.Acupuncture and Moxibustion treatment. Psychotherapy are the methods to treat psychological diseases. Here I want to introduce several kinds of psychotherapy and the case of the kinds.

The Treatment of Restriction or Checking Relation in Emotion.

The basic principles of the treatment are the use of the theory of Restriction or Checking Relation in Five Elements that each is considered to restrict the subsequent one among anxiety, panic-stricken, joy, sorrow and anger. People often use these methods to treat psychological disease.

Medical Express in Sichuan recorded a case that a student from Qinglong Bridge was cured by Li Jian-ang, a famous medical expert from Dazu Sichuan in Qing Dynasty. the illness of the student was that he was afraid to see the lamp-light and liked staying in a dark room by himself. If he came out of the dark room by chance, he would be scarced at the feeling of the brightness even more seriously.After Doctor Li examined him, he caught the article that the student had written and read it at random. The student was very annoyed at the reading of the doctor, he wrested the article back very angrily and said: 'Why are you so wildly arrogant since you know neither how to write an article nor how to make a sentence?' After he said that, he sat near the lamp without having to go far, absolutely forgetting his illness of the scare at the brigthness. He knew that the student was apt to be anxious and cherished his self-esteem, so Doctor Li read his article at random to irritate him. The liver whose property belongs to wood was affected by anger, and anger shook the anxiety of the spleen whose property belongs to earth, so wood conquers earth and anger conquers anxiety(Wang Miqi).

The Way of Stimulating the Passion

The change of man's feeling, especially under the circumstances of intense emotion and stimulation, may cause the protruding change of physiology and pathology.There are a lot of examples that ancient medical scientists make use of this theory to cure disease.Here is one example.

The History of Wei from The History of The Three Kingdom recorded a case of the famous doctor,Hua Tuo.The governor of a province had been ill for a long time.He asked Hua Tuo to cure him,Hua Tuo accepted his generous gift but gave him a letter left after abusing him instead of giving his medicine to cure.The governor was very angry after reading the letter from HuaTuo and ordered his subordinates to capture him. When he heard that they had not captured Hua Tuo,he spit blood several litres and after that ,he recovered from his illness.Hua Tuo thought that the governor had got blood stasis after his long time's illness and has vital energy need to be promoted so that his blood circulation could be in good order for vital energy is always before the blood. Most of the government officials were arrogant, so Hua Tuo irritated the governor and promoted his vital energy to make the blood circulate,followed by the spitting of stasis blood (Wang Miqi).

In additional to the methods mentioned above, the Methods of Traditional Chinese Medicine Treatment include the treatment of Qigong Emetic Therapy, Spell-magic Therapy, of the inducement of Action, of the Moving Parts of the Body and so on. they can't be illustrated one after another here for there are still many methods in the field.

II. China Calls For Counseling And Psychotherapy

At present, China is experiencing a great change. Several great changes of society had taken place in China — from agriculture society to industrial society, from monosocity to multiply society, from traditional society to modern society —— and now with rapid development of market economy, we are living in a changing period, during which Chinese people not only have to respond to, understand and accept it, but overtake much more psychological pressure than before. In such a situation, counseling and psychotherapy are confronting a series of new problems.

Bad Status of Children's and Teenagers' Psychological Health

Changes of Society will bring about negative influences to the new generation, such as the pressure of competition will cause their difficulties to be adapted to society. In China, many families only have one child, so an outstanding problem was found during education: on one hand, parents hold too high expected value with children. It is surveyed that in Shanghai area 57.8 percent of parents require their children to be the best in everything. Such high expected value make children own too much mental pressure. On the other hand, these children are taken care of in almost every aspect by their parents and even their grandfather and grandmother, which result in their selfishness, weakness and over dependence. However, in our educational system, there is still a tendency that we stress too much on students' intelligence and neglect their comprehensive capability. Lessons and homework have become a heavy load to the student, the pupils' bags are *becoming more and more heavy with an average weight of 3164 g, and fifth grade even reaches* 3855 g(Zhu Daping 1995).

In a survey upon about 10,000 people, it was found that 32 percent of them were psychologically abnormal. In Shanghai and Beijing, almost 50 percent of preschoolers got psychological problems(Shen Xiaoping 1997).

An investigation upon sixteen universities in Beijing indicates that the number of students who left school because of mental diseases occupies 37.9 percent and 64.4 percent of the total number of students who left school owing to bad health. It was reported in People's Daily in 1989, that 25.39 percent of university or college students suffered serious psychological problems(Ma Jianqing 1993).

Many parents and even teachers could not pay enough attention on the psychological deviation of teenagers from the aspect of psychology. Generally speaking, most of our teachers or instructors haven't accepted any psychological training, so they usually can't find any action to take while facing psychological problems ,so professionals with the knowledge of psychological diagnose and consulting are in urgent need to work out plans to deal with such problems.

Mental Health of Old People Is Getting More Attention

There were 116,970 thousand old people over 60 years in China by the end of 1994, occupying 9.76 percent of total people(Wu Chao 1995). At the turn of the century, China will become an old people society, and by the year of 2015, the number of old people will amount to 200 million(Wu Cangping 1997). The problems of old people will be paid more and more attention, especially the mental problems. With the changes in environment, position and income, plus the decease and losing mates, old people are bound to face many problems, so in need of and counseling psychotherapy.

Unstable Families and Rising Divorce Rate Bring Mental Troubles

According to many changes in the present society, there are more and more families getting separated, and now over 1 million people become divorced every year, on average one couple every minute(Chen Xueling 1996). Such unstable and separated families would exert great psychological influence on themselves and even their children. People hope that they can get help in concerning choosing mates or improving their marriage status by means of counseling.

With the Rate of Unemployment Increasing ,Guide for Choosing Jobs Is Urgently Needed

Owing to reforms in enterprises and differences of distribution system in universities ,people are tending to choose the jobs themselves. In intense competition ,scientific guide for choosing jobs are important for people to select more suitable career. Contract system and employment system have replaced former lifelong system and equalitarianism. Unemployment is becoming a serious public problem. By the end of 1995, unemployment number reached 5,200,000 , and the rate of unemployment is 2.9 percent ,which didn't include the ones without being registered at the relevant department, and those without unemployment insurance .In Beijing ,the figure is 3.8 percent .More and more people worry about unemployment(Xin Yan 1997) .Therefore, how to relax anxiety and strengthen adaptation, now to confront competition and losing jobs has been an important problem.

Along with the development of society and improvement of people's life standard , people are in bad need of psychological health. On the basis of statistical data, the average living expenses amount to RMB 3,900 in urban and RMB 1,500 in rural areas, registering an yearly average increase of 9 percent(Qu Xiaohua 1995). Some chinese people have said good-bye to poverty and begin to live a relatively good life. People all hope they can live happily and bring their potential into full play. Emerges at that lives requires counseling and recently counseling and psychotherapy has got a very great progress.

III. Counseling and Psychotherapy in China Today

Counseling and psychotherapy have developed rapidly in China for more than ten years, especially technique integration, varied methods, the spread of conceptions .But measured by scientific criterion, we have to admit that counseling and psychotherapy in China are still in a primary stage.

The Main Characteristic

Technique Integration

Technique integration is to use different methods or techniques in view of the client's personality, the levels of the problem and the different stages in the treatment. We have collected case reports on the *Chinese Mental Health Magazine* that published during the last ten years and clarified the methods used in the treatment. (see table 1 including 34 papers and 40 cases, without data of 1994) Data shows a significant decrease on the use of single method and a significant increase of integrative tendency. Furthermore integrative therapy generally adhere to a same mold, that is to emphasis the using of behavior - cognitive therapy under a client center atmosphere.

Table 1

	Behavior	Cognation	Analysis	Morita	Integration
1987-1990	13	7	6	2	6
1991-1996	7	8	4	6	15

Expansion of the Organization and Varied Ways of Treatment

Chinese Mental Health Association was found in Sept. 1985 and in June 1996, there have developed 13 professional committees (including Counseling and Psychotherapy professional committee, College Counseling professional Committee, and so on) , 24 provincial Mental

Health Associations , 3 branch committees, 35 region associations , and more than 20,000 members(1996). Now in the whole country, counseling clinics have opened in big hospitals and psychiatric hospitals, counseling centers have been found in colleges, and varied organizations, hot-lines, crisis interfere have been developed rapidly.

For example, people were unfamiliar with "hot-line" ten years ago. In 1987 a Psychological Aid Counseling Telephone Service was opened in Tianjin. In April , 1988, Mental Health Counseling Center was established in Beijing, and a hot-line was opened. By the time of 1996, there have been nearly 30 counseling hot-lines in Beijing(Mao Lei 1995), and which have spread all over the big cities in China.

Counseling and psychotherapy in China have gone beyond the limit of medic professionals, educational personnel, social workers, and varied social service professionals who are doing counseling or therapy in there own ways.

There are diversified methods of counseling and therapy in China today, including direct vs. indirect counseling, individual vs. group therapy. The ways of counseling are also different such as clinic, counseling through letter or telephone, spot counseling, and special counseling column of newspapers or magazines, etc.

Increasing of Concerned Publications , Spread of Conceptions

In recent ten years, conceptions about counseling and therapy have been increasingly discussed and used in public communication. A large number of books have been published such as *School Counseling, Abnormal Psychology, Psychological Testing, Practical Psychological Self Treatment, Mental Health, Psychology of Modern Life Series.* After the publication of *Chinese Mental Health* , varied academic or popular publications came out in succession such as *Chinese Clinical Psychology, Health Psychology, Psychology and Health, Youth Counseling, Psychology World* and so on. Furthermore, the special columns of psychology have been opened in lots of magazines, i.e. *Popular Psychology*, and information and data aboard have been introduced into China. People who borrowed or bought the books on counseling or therapy become much more than before(Chen Xueshi1996).

The Main Problems and Advises

Urgent Needs for the Assessment and Examine System of the Counselor's Qualifications

Although the number of diversified forms of counseling and psychotherapy increased very fast, there still lacking for unified administration. There are lots of unqualified counselors in the society. The root cause is that there is no assessment and examine system of qualification for the counselor or therapist. Therefore the quality of the service can not be guaranteed..

It is difficult to establish a feasible qualification assessment and examine system immediately. According to the lower qualification of the counselors and therapist in China, we advice on founding a supervision and training system in order to ensure the consistent effective direction and systematizes training the counselors and therapists. Furthermore, this system should take the responsibility for the concerned publications.

Limitations of Theoretical Studies and Communication

Counseling and psychotherapy in China mostly emphasis the use of technique, the issued papers were mainly the reports about the effectiveness of the treatment while seldom related to the theoretical problems. It is necessary to carry out theoretical researches and to develop enough standard conceptions in order to make discussions and exchanges, and speed up the development of the subject.

Enhance the People's Awareness of Counseling and Therapy

There are still many prejudice against counseling and therapy. Those who need counseling worry about to be regarded as a "mental patient", so they refuse counseling. An investigation shows, in a certain college, a number of clients wanted the counseling center to be in a "concealing place". Others took a skeptical attitude to the effectiveness of counseling and therapy. When they are in trouble, they would went to seek help for the divination rather than counseling.

In the light of such phenomenon, efforts should be taken to wide--publicize the general knowledge about mental health, counseling and psychotherapy, to make people not to be ashamed for counseling but to believe in the strength of science.

All in all, though counseling and Psychotherapy in China are still at a primary stage, it will surely have a bright future in the light of wide necessities in the society, and the developed tendencies in the resent ten years.

REFERENCE

1. Chen Xueling, A survey about the primary pupils' psychological characteristics in divorced families, Journal of Social Psychology, 1996, 3
2. Ma Jianqing, Analyze of college Students' Mental Health, Youth Counseling, 1993, 1
3. Mao Lei, Counseling hot-line in China, Youth Psychological Counseling , 1995,12
4. Qiu Xiaohua, Look backward the eighth five-year-plan project, China Statistics, 1995, 2
5. Shen Xiaoping, Saving children, Psychology World, 1997, 1
6. Wang Miqu , Traditional Chinese Medicine Psychology, Page 101, Page 103. Tianjin Science and Technology Press.
8. Wu Cangping, Forging a healthy aged society, Population Research, 1997, 1
9. Wu Chao, Status of old people in China, China Statistics, 1995, 8
10. Xin Yan, A psychological survey about citizens of Beijing in 1996, Public Opinion, 1997, 1
11. Zheng Richang, School Counseling, People Education Press, 1991
12. Zhu Daping ,Pupils under pressure in Shanghai , China Statistics ,1995,9
13. Chinese Mental Health Journal, 1987-1997

PARTICIPANTS

ARTERO-BONAME, Marge
University of Guam
GUAM

BARRY, Jean
Chulalongkorn University
Bangkok, THAILAND

BARTHOLOMEW, Cheryl
George Mason University
Fairfax, VA USA

BOHAN, Marilyn
Healthwise Center
Oregon City, OR USA

BREEN, Dorothy
University of Maine
Orono, ME USA

CARLSON, Jon
Governor's State University
Lake Geneva, WI USA

CARLSON, Matthew
Woodside School
Woodside, CA USA

CHAN, Alfred
The City University of Hong Kong
HONG KONG

CHANG, Kuei-Ying Cindy
Kaohsiung County Homeless Half-way House
Kaohsiung, TAIWAN

CHAVEZ, Sal
San Francisco State University
San Francisco, CA USA

CHEN, Ming-Chao
National Changhua University of Education
Changhua, TAIWAN

CHIANG, Shih-Kuang
Chung Yuan Christian University
Chung Li, TAIWAN

CHIOU, Haw-Jeng
Council of Guidance and Moral Education
Taipai, TAIWAN

CHOPE, Robert
San Francisco State University
San Francisco, CA USA

COSTELLO, Jeanne
Monterey Peninsula College
Pacific Grove, CA USA

COY, Doris
University of North Texas
Denton, TX USA

DAVIS, Yvonne
University of La Verne
La Verne, CA USA

DINKMEYER, Don
Western Kentucky University
Bowling Green, KY USA

DOLAN, Lynne
St. Michael's College
Carrara, QLD, AUSTRALIA

FALIK, Louis
San Francisco State University
San Francisco, CA USA

FISHMAN, Judith
Psychotherapist
Flushing, NY USA

FOLEY, Ellen
Jakarta International School
Jakarta, INDONESIA

GANDY, Gerald
Virginia Commonwealth University
Richmond, VA USA

HARRINGTON, Joan
Needham, MA USA

HARRINGTON, Thomas
Northeastern University
Boston, MA USA

HART, Linda
Jakarta International School
Jakarta, INDONESIA

HASCALL, Edward
San Francisco State University
San Francisco, CA USA

HAURI, Becky
Houston Community College
Houston, TX USA

PARTICIPANTS (Continued)

HAYS, Donald
University of La Verne
La Verne, CA USA

HEID, Laura
St. Mary's College
Moraga, CA USA

HIPPLE, John
University of North Texas
Denton, TX USA

HIPPLE, Lee
Texas Women's University
Denton, TX USA

HONDA, Osamu
Mukogawa Women's University
Osaka, JAPAN

HONER, Mary
California Assoc. for Counseling and Development
Fullerton, CA USA

HOOD, Ron
Psychotherapist
Boone, NC USA

HOSOKAWA, Fumiko
Cal State University, Dominguez Hills
Dominguez Hills, CA USA

HU, Xiaolu
San Jose State University
San Jose, CA USA

HURLEY, Audrey
San Francisco State University
San Francisco, CA USA

HWANG, Phil
University of San Diego
San Diego, CA USA

KRAMER, Beth
International School of Beijing
Beijing, CHINA

KURATO, Yoshiya
Osaka City University
Osaka, JAPAN

KURATO, Yukiko
Osaka Jogakuin Junior College
Osaka, JAPAN

LIPPINCOTT, Joseph
Kutztown University
Kutztown, PA USA

LOPEZ, Ruth
International School of Beijing
Beijing, CHINA

LU, Theresa
University of San Diego
San Diego, CA USA

MATSUSHITA, Kouji
Kurokawa Internal Medicine
Osaka, JAPAN

MATSUSHITA, Yuriko
Osaka City University
Osaka, JAPAN

MACDONALD, Don
Seattle Pacific University
Seattle, WA USA

MACDONALD, Ginger
Seattle Pacific University
Seattle, WA USA

MAU, Wei-Cheng
Wichita State University
Wichita, KS USA

MACLEAN, Gail
International School of Beijing
Beijing, CHINA

MILLER, Geri
Appalachian State University
Boone, NC USA

MINOR, Carole
Northern Illinois University
DeKalb, IL USA

NAKAMURA, Yasuko
Osaka City Child Guidance Center
Osaka, JAPAN

PAI, Hui-Chuan
University of Florida
Puli,Nantoo Hsien, TAIWAN

PARISH, Mary
St. Mary's College
Moraga, CA USA

PARTICIPANTS (Continued)

POPE, Mark
University of Missouri-St. Louis
St. Louis, MO USA

PRESCHER, Gene
International School of Beijing
Beijing, CHINA

ROSEMAN, John
University of La Verne
La Verne, CA USA

ROWELL, Lonnie
University of San Diego
San Diego, CA USA

SAKURAI-HORITA, Jon
Career Quest
Pacifica, CA USA

SANDHU, Daya Singh
University of Louisville
Louisville, KY USA

SCOTT, Nancy
Kent State University
Kent, OH USA

SHIAH, Yung-Jong
Chung Yuan Christian University
Chung Li, TAIWAN

SMITH, Peggy
San Francisco State University
San Francisco, CA USA

SOONG, Cecilia
National Institute of Education
SINGAPORE

STRONG, Winifred
California Assoc. for Counseling and Development
Fullerton, CA USA

TAKEISHI, Masahiro
Osaka, JAPAN

TAM, Wei-Cheng Carl
Chung Yuan Christian University
Chung Li, TAIWAN

TAN, Carol
Tangible Results
Pittsford, NY USA

TIEN, Hsui-Lan Shelly
National Pingtung Teachers College
Kaohsiung, TAIWAN

TOMAN, Sarah
Cleveland State University
Cleveland, OH USA

TSENG, Kong-Zieng
National Changhua University of Education]
Changhua, TAIWAN

UMALI, Conchita
Assumption College
Metro Manila, PHILLIPINES

WALLIS, Edie
Swinbourne University of Technology
Lilydale, AUSTRALIA

WALTHER, Glenda
Psychotherapist
La Verne, CA USA

WANG, Vivian Ota
Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey
New Brunswick, NJ USA

WEIYUAN, Zhang
University of Hong Kong
HONG KONG

YANG, Julia
National Kaohsiung Normal University
Kaohsiung, TAIWAN

HOST PARTICIPANTS

CAO Zifang
Shanghai Normal University
CHINA

DENG Weizhi
Shanghai University
CHINA

FAN Fumin
Tsinghua University
CHINA

HU Peicheng
Beijing Medical University
CHINA

HUO Liqin
Beijing Medical University
CHINA

JIAO Qing
Beijing Normal University
CHINA

LI Hong
Tsinghua University
CHINA

LIN Yonghe
Beijing Light Industry Collage
CHINA

MENG Hongwei
China Central Academy of Education Since
CHINA

QIAN Mingyi
Beijing University
CHINA

SHI Jinghuan
Beijing Normal University
CHINA

WANG Dengfeng
Beijing University
CHINA

WANG Gongbin
Beijing Normal University
CHINA

WANG Guodong
Beijing Academy of Education Since
CHINA

WANG Yi
Shanghai Normal University
CHINA

WU Ailan
Beijing Medical University
CHINA

ZHANG Zhiyong
Beijing University
CHINA

ZHENG Richang,
Beijing Normal University
CHINA